Phi Delta KAPPAN

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FIFTY-THIRD YEAR

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Phi Delta KAPPAN

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For the promotion and improvement of free public education through a continuing interpretation of the ideals of research, service, and leadership

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ROY K. WILSON, Director, Press and Radio Relations, NEA, 1201 Sixteenth St., N.W., Washington 6, D. C.

Editorial and Business Staff

STANLEY ELAM, *Editor;* JULES V. HARCOURT, *Business Manager*, Eighth St. and Union Ave., Bloomington, Ind.

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The 'Serious Disproportion'

DID you notice? Of sixteen men picked by the editors of *Esquire* in February to represent the "top brains of America's intellectual capital" (Cambridge, Mass.), nine pointed more or less directly to *some aspect of education* when asked the question, "What worries you most about America today?"

Most of these men are teachers. Ask sixteen ministers of the gospel the same question and you'd get different answers, no doubt. But John Kenneth Galbraith is right. The Cambridge intellectuals *can* take the long view. And they have demonstrated that they often see what is true and what is not, at least within their own fields.

What do they say? Well, there are some stuffy copyright rules we shouldn't like to break, but the editors of *Esquire* don't mind if we tease you.

Galbraith (our favorite economist) says, "The tendency to over-invest in things and under-invest in people. This is a serious disproportion which we are far from correcting. It is epitomized by our magnificent steel plants and our seedy schools, parks, playgrounds, and hospitals."

It would be fun to go on quoting from *Esquire*. For example, here is what G. R. Harrison, dean of the MIT School of Science, says, "The fact that we've been so successful, that our moral fiber has tended to become weakened, tenderized, by this success. I am worried by our public schools. They have deteriorated. Progressive education has been carried to absurd extremes. It has resulted in an inferior kind of education. This shows in the ways our kids don't get disciplined minds and this, of course, means that they will have a less productive life. . . . "

Hmmm. Then there are the remarks of Robert Frost:

"Worries is a hard word for me. I am interested in strengthening the high schools of America, bringing them up. A little thing I want is named chairs in the high schools. Once you got it, you would be in it for life. This would enrich the position of the high-school teacher. Their position is not dignified enough. . . . "

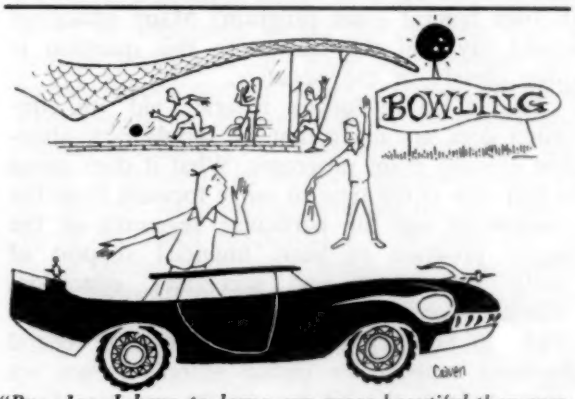
But for this issue of the KAPPAN we'll stick with the Galbraith statement. In this KAPPAN are some comments on school finance by a select group of educators, and we heartily recommend that you sample them. But we can't resist the temptation to add our two cents' worth in this billion dollar arena.

It seems to us that if any progress is to be made in the direction Galbraith indicates, educators must at the very least recognize and accept certain fundamentals of human psychology and certain facts of history, most of which we haven't space to discuss.

One of the few areas left in which the American voter can register a direct vote against expenditure of tax money is the school bond election or tax referendum. We are faced today with the absurdity of a people anxious to have better schools but able to combat growing tax bills effectively only by voting against better schools. (The outraged defense of their school economy position by editors of the *Reader's Digest*, January issue, speaks volumes on this point, all between the lines.)

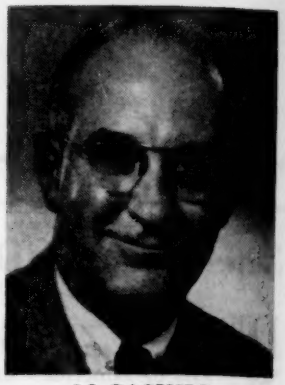
Even educators, who are among those most vitally affected, still don't quite appreciate the magnitude of the revolution begun when the sixteenth amendment empowered Congress to collect taxes on income without apportionment among the states. Growth of federal tax power and tax income, without concurrent growth of federal participation in the cost of education, has put the schools in an untenable position. Some of the details of this situation are presented in this KAPPAN, and they are the facts of history we're talking about.

What do they add up to? To us, they mean one thing in particular. The nation's schools MUST have federal support if we are ever to overcome the serious disproportion that worries all thinking Americans. Educators are unlikely to reverse the trend toward big government. The least they can do is work to make big government good government by encouraging it to take responsibility for financial support of our most vital social institution.—S.M.E.



"Bye, Joe. I have to leave our more-beautiful-than-ever bowling alley and drive my longer-than-ever hardtop down the wider-than-ever freeway through the plushier-than-ever shopping center to pick up my son. He attends dingier-than-ever P. S. 85."

We Need Federal Support, NOT Federal Aid



McCASKILL

Following major policy revision, the NEA is now supporting school legislation which would establish long-range financial commitment by the federal government. Although he admits that Congress and the American public may not be ready, an NEA spokesman here makes a strong case for a new concept of fundamental school support as opposed to limited, remedial, and spotty aid.

By **J. L. McCASKILL**

WILL Congress pass a federal aid to education bill in 1959? It may pass a school construction act; or it may broaden the provisions of the National Defense Education Act of 1958 to include a scholarship program.

But perhaps we ought to be asking ourselves a different question, namely, do our schools need more federal aid in the form of grants for special activities and functions? Is it necessary to add to what we already have by way of federal aid to vocational education, to federally-affected areas, and, most recently of all, for the purchase of equipment to teach science, mathematics, and foreign languages? Should we continue this process until each subject matter or school function has its own federal grant program? Many educators would say that the answer to this question is quite clearly in the negative.

To say no to further federal "aid" to education does not mean that we should now abandon existing grant programs. What it does mean is that now is the time to move forward from the concept of aid for particular segments of the school program to basic financial support of public elementary and secondary education. Whether Congress and the American public are ready to take up this new concept of federal financial support for public schools is not yet clear. Indeed, the NEA is in the process of re-educating itself as representative of the organized teaching profession. What is more important is that Congress and the American public recognize that the time has come for the federal government to assume its proper responsibility for support of public education, a responsibility that cannot be discharged by fragmented programs of grants to selected educational functions or by short-term, emergency, "crash" programs. To put it another way, the time has come to stop talking about "aid" to education as if our schools were the object of public charity or a dole; rather, the time has come to make the federal government an agency for channeling to the schools an equitable share of our burgeoning national economy, which we measure in terms of a gross national product of more than $400 billion a year.

Aid Vs. Support

Historically, federal aid to education is the kind of proposal that has been under discussion intermittently since the last half of the 19th century. More recently, federal aid to education legislation was introduced immediately following World War I; it was given fresh impetus by the depression of the 1930's; the need for federal aid to education was argued from the effect of World War II on our schools; finally, it was advocated to meet the post-war surge of enrollments.

A decade ago, federal aid to equalize educational opportunities of children living in different parts of the United States was brilliantly championed by Senator Lister Hill (D-Ala.) and the late Senators Robert A. Taft (R-Ohio) and Elbert Thomas (D-Utah). Twice, the Senate passed a Taft-Thomas-Hill bill only to have the legislation die in the House. The crowning blow came when organized professional and public support for the bill divided on the question of whether the states could use federal funds to provide auxiliary services, such as transportation, for children attending non-public schools.

MR. MCCASKILL *(Zeta 1230) is executive secretary of the NEA Legislative Commission.*

From 1949 to 1957, attention turned to federal financial assistance to help the states and local communities cope with the shortage of classrooms resulting from construction postponed during World War II and aggravated by a series of annual enrollment increases such as had never before confronted our public schools. Congress gave a limited response in the form of legislation to take care of the needs of localities where these enrollment increases were traceable to an influx of federal employees, civilian or military; it also authorized the first (and to this date, the only) nationwide school facilities survey. In 1956, and again in 1957, emergency school construction bills limited as to the amount of funds available and the length of time during which the funds would be available were debated in the House of Representatives. Twice these bills were voted down after a coalition of Southern Democrats and conservative Republicans had succeeded in getting the issue of school construction inextricably tangled with the issue of desegregation of schools.[1] Three months after the House last rejected a school construction bill, Sputnik I was launched.

To summarize, the NEA, many members of Congress, and several influential national organizations have advocated federal aid for the better part of three decades. Federal aid legislation has one or more of these characteristics:

1. It is intended to stimulate educational activity rather than to underwrite it for a long period of time.
2. It is usually directed to a special area rather than to general educational purposes.
3. It tends to be remedial rather than fundamental.
4. It tends to deal with emergency situations rather than long-range problems.

Federal financial support for education has these characteristics:

1. It is an underwriting by the federal government of local and state financing of education.
2. It is directed to the general school operation rather than to specific subjects or functions.
3. It attacks the fundamental problems of the financial need of our schools.
4. It involves a long-range commitment on the part of the federal government.

The idea of federal financial support as distinguished from federal aid for education did not originate with the NEA. Economists such as Beardsley Ruml, John Kenneth Galbraith, and Walter Heller have had much to do with developing the new concept;[2] their work has been paralleled by school finance experts who have been exploring the connections between our economic growth and the fiscal resources of our schools. Some especially significant work in this field has been done by R. L. Johns of the University of Florida.[3] The most succinct statement of the whole issue is found in a memorable speech by Walter Lippmann to the National Citizens Commission for Public Schools.[4] His declaration that "we are quite rich enough to educate ourselves as we need to be educated" pointed the way toward responsible federal sharing of the financing of our schools as distinguished from emergency aids and palliatives.

Words of a Lay Observer

"The notion that local and state taxes can pay for a major breakthrough is false—this was one of the strongest convictions I gained on my trip [of six months, visiting U. S. schools].

"It made sense, a century ago, to hitch education's horse to our real-estate buggy. Today, even if the nation's fluid money were still in real estate—and it no longer is—local and state politics would make it impossible to get enough of it into the schools to do the real job. Who ever heard of a tax assessor running for re-election on a 'raise-taxes-for-schools' platform?"

—In "Let the Debate Be Honest!", by Robert Shayon, radio-TV critic and *Saturday Review* feature writer, February, 1959, *NEA Journal*.

A Challenge—and a Response

Looking back to October, 1957, when we witnessed a near-hysterical reaction first to the Soviet sputnik and second to the release of the U. S. Office of Education study of Soviet schools, the world of education should be thankful that it was not stampeded into some sort of crash program.[5] School administrators and teachers alike were caught in a maelstrom of proposals and counter-proposals. The teaching profession was urged to throw in its lot with the proponents of any number of grandiose schemes for the remaking of American education. It is no small tribute to the fundamental good sense which the critics of education frequently assert is lacking in teach-

[1] See "How the Kelley Bill Was Lost—And Why," *NEA Journal*, 45:363 (September 1956) and "The Children Lose Again," *NEA Journal*, 46:395 (September 1957).

[2] See especially Ruml's "Long Term Problems of Public School Finance," American Association of School Administrators *Official Report*, 1955: 195-200, and "A Plan That Will Work: Federal Support for the Public Schools," *Phi Delta Kappan*, 38:261-5 (April 1957).

[3] See his "Where's the Money Coming From?" in *NEA Journal*, 46:525-7 (November 1957).

[4] Subsequently printed as "The Shortage in Education" in *The Atlantic*, 193:35-8 (May 1954).

[5] Pessimists may view the National Defense Education Act of 1958 as a crash program, but it should be noted that many of the programs authorized by the NDEA had been under discussion long before sputnik. Obviously, the NDEA is federal aid for education, not federal support.

ers that the answer of the education profession to the Soviet challenge was a proposal for basic federal financial support of education, a massive infusion, if you will, of funds to be applied to the rising demand for more classrooms and better paid teachers.

This proposal was, and still is, breathtakingly simple. It is that the federal government shall grant to the states an amount equal to $25 per school-age child (age 5-17), that this grant should increase over a four-year period until it amounts to a contribution of $100 per child, and that the funds available to the states be used either for construction of school buildings or to increase teachers' salaries, or for any combination of these two which the state wishes to accomplish. Swept away is the whole apparatus of measuring variations of per capita income to determine need, of elaborate state plans to show how many classrooms will be built and the amount of federal funds needed to build them. Instead of trying to pit state against state by a system of variable grants and other equalizing factors, it makes the school-age child the unit of measurement and the focus of attention. After all, it is for his education that the money is being spent.

Earlier federal aid bills had been addressed to specific problems; indeed, some of the existing forms of federal aid could not have become law had they not been so designed. The massive infusion plan, however, was evolved in response to a challenge that seemed to call for something more than holding together with hot patches and baling wire the weak spots in our educational system. In response to a fundamental question—how shall we best pay for the schools our children deserve?—the federal support plan provides a fundamental solution.

Schools and the National Economy[6]

The fundamental problem is that public elementary and secondary school support is inadequate to meet the demand for universal education of high quality and flexibility in terms of the varying talents of today's children and youth. The Rockefeller report on education urges the American people to pursue excellence in education even though it notes that this will be an expensive pursuit, one that cannot be accomplished without *at least doubling* what we now spend on education at all levels and under all types of control.[7] Projections of expenditures made by the NEA Research Division show that by 1965 we shall spend for public elementary and secondary education from $24.1 billion to $34.6 billion, depending upon whether we want to hold the line at current per-pupil expenditure and teacher salary levels or whether we want to step up both these levels of spending. At present, public school spending is approximately $14.4 billion.

$30 Billion for Schools by 1967?

What is more significant is the relationship of this spending for public schools to the gross national product (GNP), the sum total of goods and services produced in the United States. We are now spending a little more than 3 per cent of our $436 billion total output on education. Ten years ago we spent only 2.2 per cent. But our total output has been growing at a rate of 3 per cent a year for many years and at 4 per cent a year since World War II. The Rockefeller report on the economy and many other projections of our national economic growth suggest that we can quickly achieve a GNP annual growth of 5 per cent, giving us a GNP of $707 billion in 1967.[8] Devoting the same proportion of this GNP to public education in 1967 as we now spend would enable us to increase public school spending to $30 billion in 1967, which represents the doubling of educational expenditures that seems to be necessary.

This doubling of public school expenditures would absorb 11 per cent of a 10-year increase in GNP at the long-time 3 per cent rate (a GNP of $583 billion in 1967), but only 6 per cent of the increase at the 5-per cent rate of GNP growth. Obviously, the nation can afford to support public education from the economic resources available to it. But it cannot do so while school revenues must be squeezed out of locally imposed taxes on property or from state income and sales taxes.

At present, 56 cents of the school dollar come from local sources; 40 cents from state; and 4 cents from the federal government. This is a small sliver of the revenue pie of $12 billion available to public schools. It looks even more meager by comparison to the 75-cent slice the federal government calls its own out of every dollar collected for taxes by all levels of government.

In an effort to avoid facing the facts, those who oppose federal support of education offer

[6] This section is based upon the as yet unpublished testimony of NEA President Ruth Stout and Walter Heller, University of Minnesota economist, before the Labor and Public Welfare Committee of the U. S. Senate in hearings scheduled for February 4-6, 1959. Until these hearings are available from the committee, readers may wish to refer to *Federal Grants to the States for Education*, hearings before a subcommittee of the Committee on Education and Labor of the U. S. House of Representatives, 85th Congress, 2nd Session, Washington: U. S. Government Printing Office, 1958.

[7] Rockefeller Brothers Fund. *The Pursuit of Excellence*. Garden City, N. Y.: Doubleday and Co., 1958. See especially pp. 33, 34.

[8] Rockefeller Brothers Fund, *The Challenge to America*. Garden City, N. Y.: Doubleday and Co., 1958, pp. 65, 66.

gimmicks such as income tax rebates, loan guarantees, or federal tax credits to be applied when local school taxes are increased—everything but the obvious solution, which is to make available to public schools a portion of the tax dollar that is collected more cheaply, more efficiently, and with less evasion than any other. This is the federal income tax, which cannot be dodged by crossing state lines, which creates no interstate competition, and which is most responsive to growth in national income. Since national income (personal and corporate) is one of the chief growth components of the gross national product, the federal income tax is the most effective way to allocate a portion of that growth, whether it be at a 3-per cent or a 5-per cent rate, to education.

The Murray-Metcalf Bill

It is one thing to say that the federal government should pay a larger share toward the support of our public schools and that by so doing it should widen the 4-cent sliver to a more respectable chunk of the dollar available for support of our public schools. It is another thing to develop a practical legislative proposal to accomplish this end. This is what the Murray-Metcalf bill (S. 2 and H.R. 22) is intended to do. The bill takes its name from the fact that it has been introduced in the Senate by Senator James E. Murray (D-Mont.) and thirty other senators as S. 2; in the House it was introduced as H.R. 22 by Representative Lee Metcalf (D-Mont.). Representative Metcalf has been joined in this action by several other House members. All of them have introduced separate bills identically worded with H.R. 22. By the time this article is in print, a subcommittee of the Senate Labor and Public Welfare Committee and a subcommittee of the House Education and Labor Committee will have begun hearings on S. 2 and H.R. 22, as well as on other bills intended to provide federal grants for elementary and secondary education. Included among these other bills will be several school construction bills and measures intended to make direct grants to the states to be used for any purpose for which the state may legally use its own public school funds.

The Murray-Metcalf bill authorizes Congress to appropriate funds equivalent to $25 per school-age child for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1960 (approximately $1.1 billion); $50 per child for fiscal 1961 ($2.2 billion); $75 per child for fiscal 1962 ($3.5 billion); and $100 per child for fiscal 1963 and each year thereafter ($4.8 billion). Projections of the total funds to be granted after the first year are based on reasonable assumptions from U. S. Bureau of the Census figures as to what the number of school-age children will be in those years (see Table I).

The funds will be paid to the state education agency for each state, and this agency in turn will specify annually to the U. S. Commissioner of Education what proportion of the state's allotment will be used for one or both of these purposes: school construction or teachers' salaries. In addition, the state shall also certify that 75 per cent of the proportion of its funds which it elects to use for teachers' salaries will be distributed on a per-teacher basis.

Since the object of the Murray-Metcalf bill is to broaden the base of federal financial support rather than to substitute federal effort for state and local efforts, provision has been made in the bill for application of an effort index after the bill has been in operation for three years. The effect of applying this effort index would be to penalize those states which are not giving adequate support from their own resources to education in relation to the nationwide effort to support education. The effort index would be computed by dividing the revenue per public school child by the income per child of school age (5-17). Revenue per public school child would be determined by dividing the total state and local revenue available for elementary and secondary education by the number of children in average daily attendance in a given state.

As is customary in such legislation, the state and national figures necessary to compute the effort index would be determined by the U. S. Commissioner of Education for the most recent school year for which satisfactory data from the states can be obtained. And it should be remembered that application of this effort index would not begin until after state legislatures had three years in which to step up their own efforts. Thus, while no new matching would be required from the states, there would nevertheless be an incentive to the states not only to maintain their present level of support but to increase it.

Other Bills Up for Consideration

As has been mentioned above, the Murray-Metcalf bill is not the only proposal for financial assistance to elementary and secondary schools which the 86th Congress will have under consideration. There is still considerable interest in school construction legislation, generally of a short-term nature with assistance to be available for a two-year or a four-year period. Congress also has before it companion bills (S. 631 and H.R. 2365), introduced by Senator Alexander Wiley (R-

TABLE I—ESTIMATED ALLOTMENTS TO INDIVIDUAL STATES UNDER THE MURRAY-METCALF BILL FOR SCHOOL YEARS 1959-60, 1960-61, 1961-62, AND 1962-63, BASED ON PROJECTIONS OF EACH STATE'S SCHOOL-AGE POPULATION (5-17 YEARS) FOR THESE YEARS*

States	1959-60 allotments: $25 per estimated child, 5-17 years	1960-61 allotments: $50 per estimated child, 5-17 years	1961-62 allotments: $75 per estimated child, 5-17 years	1962-63 allotments:** $100 per estimated child, 5-17 years
Continental United States	$1,085,000,000	$2,243,100,000	$3,450,900,000	$4,745,900,000
Alabama	22,275,000	44,950,000	67,425,000	90,100,000
Alaska	1,350,000	3,000,000	4,950,000	7,100,000
Arizona	7,975,000	16,950,000	26,850,000	38,000,000
Arkansas	11,675,000	23,150,000	33,900,000	44,200,000
California	87,800,000	185,600,000	291,750,000	410,500,000
Colorado	11,100,000	23,300,000	36,450,000	50,700,000
Connecticut	13,525,000	28,150,000	43,350,000	60,000,000
Delaware	2,775,000	5,850,000	9,300,000	13,200,000
District of Columbia	4,025,000	8,450,000	12,975,000	17,800,000
Florida	26,700,000	56,800,000	90,525,000	128,800,000
Georgia	26,725,000	54,750,000	83,550,000	113,600,000
Idaho	4,525,000	9,250,000	14,100,000	19,000,000
Illinois	57,950,000	120,200,000	185,550,000	257,100,000
Indiana	29,250,000	60,750,000	93,825,000	129,600,000
Iowa	17,250,000	35,250,000	53,700,000	73,000,000
Kansas	13,250,000	27,500,000	42,450,000	58,300,000
Kentucky	20,475,000	41,400,000	62,250,000	83,400,000
Louisiana	22,050,000	45,600,000	70,350,000	96,700,000
Maine	5,825,000	11,850,000	17,850,000	24,000,000
Maryland	19,000,000	39,700,000	61,575,000	85,800,000
Massachusetts	27,050,000	55,250,000	83,775,000	113,800,000
Michigan	51,400,000	107,450,000	167,400,000	233,700,000
Minnesota	21,550,000	44,500,000	68,325,000	93,800,000
Mississippi	15,625,000	31,450,000	47,100,000	62,400,000
Missouri	24,900,000	51,200,000	78,375,000	107,400,000
Montana	4,525,000	9,350,000	14,475,000	20,000,000
Nebraska	8,900,000	18,350,000	28,200,000	38,400,000
Nevada	1,750,000	3,800,000	6,150,000	8,800,000
New Hampshire	3,425,000	7,000,000	10,725,000	14,700,000
New Jersey	33,225,000	69,250,000	107,025,000	148,700,000
New Mexico	6,300,000	13,150,000	20,475,000	28,300,000
New York	90,350,000	186,450,000	285,300,000	392,200,000
North Carolina	31,325,000	63,900,000	97,125,000	131,100,000
North Dakota	4,400,000	9,000,000	13,650,000	18,300,000
Ohio	58,650,000	122,300,000	189,825,000	264,300,000
Oklahoma	13,925,000	28,000,000	42,000,000	55,900,000
Oregon	11,250,000	23,200,000	35,550,000	48,600,000
Pennsylvania	64,925,000	132,900,000	201,900,000	275,100,000
Rhode Island	4,875,000	10,050,000	15,300,000	20,900,000
South Carolina	17,925,000	36,700,000	55,800,000	75,300,000
South Dakota	4,600,000	9,450,000	14,475,000	19,600,000
Tennessee	22,900,000	46,500,000	70,050,000	94,200,000
Texas	63,825,000	132,950,000	206,475,000	285,300,000
Utah	6,425,000	13,350,000	20,625,000	28,500,000
Vermont	2,325,000	4,700,000	7,050,000	9,500,000
Virginia	25,450,000	52,550,000	80,625,000	110,400,000
Washington	17,675,000	36,100,000	56,250,000	77,200,000
West Virginia	13,175,000	26,250,000	38,775,000	51,100,000
Wisconsin	24,675,000	51,050,000	78,525,000	108,100,000
Wyoming	2,175,000	4,500,000	6,900,000	9,400,000

*The projections of school-age population used in preparing this table were made by the U.S. Bureau of the Census at the request and expense of the Research Division of the National Education Association. The series of projections of school-age population used in this table were made under the assumption that the 1950-1957 pattern and level of net interstate migration for the age group (5-17 years) will continue throughout the projection period. This series of projections was selected by the NEA Research Division from a group of three series based on different assumptions regarding future internal migration for the age group.

**Estimates of state allotments appearing in this column will be subject to changes resulting from the application of the maintenance of state and local effort provision of the bill which will not be operative until the fourth year that allotments are made under the Murray-Metcalf Bill.

Wisc.) and Representative Stewart Udall (D-Ariz.), which would grant $500 million to the states in the first year of operation and such sums as Congress might choose to appropriate in succeeding fiscal years, the funds to be available for expenditure by the states for any purpose connected with public elementary or secondary education. The Eisenhower administration is reportedly trying to develop a school construction loan guarantee or debt-service bill, one that would involve no immediate financial outlay.[9] As of the first week in February, with hearings under-

way, no administration bill had been introduced. [The bill was introduced February 9 as S. 1016 and H. R. 4268.]

Finally, there are numerous proposals to broaden the scope of the National Defense Education Act of 1958 either by adding scholarships to higher institutions or by making some of the provisions for training guidance and foreign language teachers more inclusive. Educators must, of course, be concerned with legislation affecting the working of the National Defense Education Act. They must also be acquainted with the possibility that a school construction bill is all that will come from the 86th Congress.

Representing the organized profession, the NEA has a mandate from its 1958 Representative Assembly to support a bill consistent with the principles embodied in the 1958 Murray-Metcalf bill, a mandate that was renewed in the fall of 1958 by the NEA Board of Directors. There can certainly be no doubt that the Murray-Metcalf bill introduced in the 86th Congress (S. 2 and H.R. 22) is consistent with the desire of the official governing bodies of the NEA that such legislation be supported.

Can Federal Support Pass?

What, then, are the prospects for legislation along the lines of the Murray-Metcalf bill? Realism dictates that the answer to this question be a guarded one. The thinking of the administration places major emphasis on fiscal economy. Then, too, there is the inevitable lag in public and Congressional action to deal with the financial problems of our schools. Ironically enough, Congress may now be in a better mood to pass a school construction bill along the lines of proposals it rejected in 1956 and 1957 than it has been in a long time. The NEA is not opposed to school construction legislation; but it believes that it should not ask for half a loaf when a whole loaf is needed.

The 86th Congress is one in which there are many members who enthusiastically support federal school legislation and who believe that some means must be found to channel more federal funds into support of public education. But this same Congress may be controlled by conservative men who are concerned only with a few areas of public expenditure such as defense or highways or farm support or who, in some cases, are bitterly opposed to any federal expenditure for education. It is disappointing that the majority leader of the Senate has not yet made any reference to education legislation in his program for the 86th Congress. And it is positively discouraging to realize that the House Rules Committee now contains six opponents of federal school legislation—men who recorded votes against school construction in 1956 and 1957. Since the Rules Committee has only twelve members, these six men can block the progress of any legislation reported from the Education and Labor Committee. Not least among the roadblocks is the prospect of a presidential veto.

These are serious obstacles, to be sure, and they can only be effectively overcome by an aroused, articulate, professional concern joined by a general public concern that education should receive its proper share of the nation's wealth. In *The Affluent Society,* John Kenneth Galbraith sums up this concern in these words:

> Whether the problem be that of a burgeoning population and of space in which to live with peace and grace, or whether it be the depletion of the materials which nature has stocked in the earth's crust and which have been drawn upon more heavily in this century than in all previous time together, or whether it be that of occupying minds no longer committed to the stockpiling of consumer goods, the basic demand of America will be on its resources of ability, intelligence, and education. The test will be less the effectiveness of our material investment than the effectiveness of our investment in men. We live in a day of grandiose generalization. This one can be made with confidence.[10]

[9] See "Agency Works on New Plan To Spur School Building" by James A. Reynolds, *Wall Street Journal,* January 22, 1959.

[10] Galbraith, John Kenneth, *The Affluent Society.* Boston: Houghton Mifflin, 1958, p. 355.

► Combined budgets of U. S. governors as forty-six state legislatures convene this year are more than $17 billion, an increase over current expenditures of about $1 billion.

The bulk of state funds will go for the requirements of an exploding population, but must be obtained from the relatively small productive group aged 20 to 65. Much of the increase will go to take care of school-children and longer-living indigent old people, who pay no taxes.

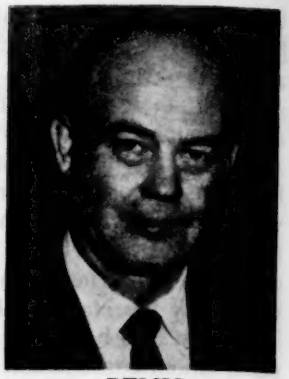
The new money will come from increased revenues due to improving business conditions and from the increasing number of taxpayers. There are also increases in taxes on cigarettes and whisky, higher sales taxes, higher income and corporation taxes.

► The average increase in the public education budgets of forty countries in one year (1955-56) was 14.5 per cent. It was 11 per cent in 1954-55 and 10 per cent in 1953-54. In other words, unless there is a counter-current to check this rate, the cost of providing education will have doubled in less than ten years.

—Pedro Rosello, International Bureau of Education

Men & Money

(*Part Two*)



BEMIS

This is the second part of a speech made by Phi Delta Kappa's executive secretary before two district conferences of the fraternity last fall. The first part appeared in the December, 1958, **Kappan.**

Dr. Bemis presents data to show graphically how overdependence on the property tax is a major factor in education's present financial predicament. He outlines three major decisions educators ought to make now if we are to recover our financial equilibrium.

By **MAYNARD BEMIS**

I WANT now to look with you briefly at my second question: How can we compete successfully with other governmental agencies and services for a share of the tax dollar which will give us, within the next decade, at least *twice* the revenue we now have for the support of public education?

Most of us are aware of the need for a thoroughgoing study of the tax structure. We realize that in many states schools are overly dependent on a property tax which is the major source of support for all local governmental agencies and services. We know the need to continue efforts toward increasing the ratio, as well as the amount, of school revenue coming from the state level and distributing that money on an equalization basis tied to a guaranteed foundation program. Some of us are equally keen about securing sizeable federal contributions for the broad program of public education, not simply for certain emergency aspects as they arise from crisis to crisis.

At the same time, we are well aware that this country is capable of financing its schools in a decent and respectable fashion. We have the wealth. It is simply a matter of public understanding, a matter of values, and a matter of equitable procedure.

MR. BEMIS *(Beta Mu 122) is executive secretary, Phi Delta Kappa International. He was formerly professor of school administration at the University of Wyoming and visiting professor at Stanford.*

There is a trend in the tax pattern which is operating against our obsolete method of school support. I presume you are aware of it, but too few members of our lay public are. The chart entitled *Tax Revenue as a Per Cent of the National Income,** with its supporting table, points up this trend. First, let me point out why I chose these dates: (1) 1940 marks the end of the depression; at least, we were again approaching the 1929 level of national income; and our country was not yet involved in the fighting of World War II. (2) The fiscal year 1950 was nearly completed before our entry into the Korean Conflict and should not reflect unduly the unusual tax needs of that engagement. (3) 1957 is simply the most recent year for which a "Summary of Government Finances," Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, is available.

The chart makes quite clear the fact that, as tax collecting agencies, the relative importance of the federal government as compared with state and local governments made a complete switch in a period of only 17 years. In 1940, state and local governments benefited to the extent of 63 per cent of all tax revenue. By 1957, this figure had been reduced to 29 per cent. Over the same period, of course, tax revenue collected by the federal government increased from 37 to 71 per cent of the total. The importance of these figures to public education lies in the fact that our ele-

*Unless otherwise noted, data used herein were taken from the annual publication, *Statistical Abstract of the United States,* U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census.

mentary and secondary schools are supported almost entirely by the tax resources of state and local governments.

From 1940 to 1957, total tax revenue as a per cent of the national income rose from 17.3 to 27.6. But *total tax revenue* as reported in these figures includes neither revenue from utilities and government liquor monopolies nor from government insurance-trust programs, such as taxes for unemployment compensation or old-age and survivors insurance. For example, in 1957, the addition of these items brings the grand total of all governmental revenue to 130 billion dollars, or just over 36 per cent of the national income. Perhaps this is not the limit, even for a year in which we were not actively engaged in war. But how much further can we go in the support of governmental agencies and services?

This is where the matter of values and public understanding assumes real significance. According to the publication, "Trends in Significant Facts on School Finance," Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Office of Education, we have lost no ground over the period under consideration in terms of the per cent of personal income (a different term and less than national income) devoted to the support of our elementary and secondary schools. This is to the credit of the voting citizens of our country and their sense of values. It is also to the credit of those educators who have attempted to develop an informed and understanding public.

A Tribute to Public Education

That schools have held their own in the face of the shrinking percentage of total tax revenue going to state and local governments is a tribute to public education, but it was accomplished only at the expense of some other state and local governmental services. Thinking educators would agree that county roads, health and hospitals, public welfare, sanitation, police and fire protection, municipal water supplies—even curbs and gutters—are important to our way of life and our standard of living. These and related services must have been penalized, or at least postponed, over the past two decades to a greater degree than would have been necessary had state and local governments maintained a greater share of tax revenue or had the public schools not been held in high esteem. But education needs at least twice its present tax revenue over the next decade. How much longer can we compete successfully against other state and local services, even at our present subsistence level?

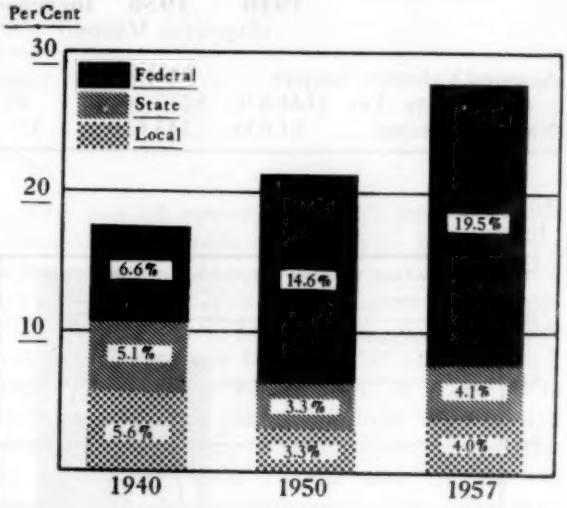
One of public education's major financial problems is its overdependence on the property tax. Nearly 60 per cent of current revenue and nearly 100 per cent of the costs of debt service are met at the local level. In 1957, 87 per cent of all tax revenue for local governments came from the property tax. If this tax ever was a measure of ability to support government services, it cannot be so considered now. The chart entitled *Assessed Valuation and the National Income* would seem to make that statement obvious.

In 1940, assessed valuation subject to the property tax was 77 per cent more than the national income. But by 1956, this tax base had increased in value by only 88 per cent; while the national income, certainly a more substantial measure of ability to pay taxes, had increased by 321 per cent. In 1956, the national income was greater by 26 per cent than was the total assessed valuation subject to property tax. During the 16-year period, assessed valuation simply failed to grow at anywhere near the rate needed to support the services dependent on it and showed a most unsatisfactory relationship to national wealth and the ability to pay for governmental services.

TAX REVENUE AND THE NATIONAL INCOME

	1940	1950	1957
	(Figures in Millions)		
National Income	$ 81,634	$239,956	$358,000
Federal Tax Revenue	5,340	35,053	69,815
State Tax Revenue	4,171	7,930	14,531
Local Tax Revenue	4,606	7,984	14,511

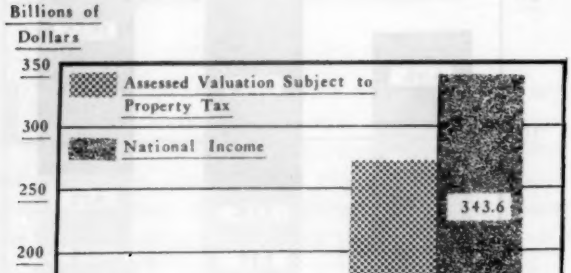
Tax Revenue as a Per Cent of National Income



The charts entitled *Property Tax Revenue* and *Income Tax Revenue,* with their appropriate tables, show how much more lucrative total income tax revenue, as compared with total property tax revenue, has come to be. Nevertheless, there is a stiffening resistance in many parts of our country to school bond levies and emergency tax rate elections.

ASSESSED VALUATION AND THE NATIONAL INCOME

	1940	1956	Per Cent Increase
	(Figures in Millions)		
Assessed Valuation Subject to Property Tax	$144,636	$272,444	88
National Income	81,634	343,620	321

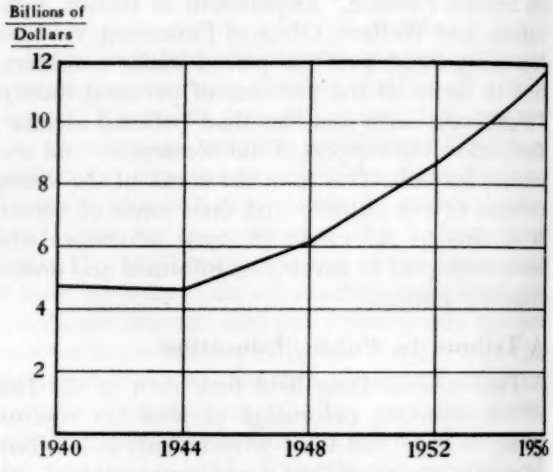


The situation would seem to call for at least three major steps, or decisions: (1) We must support a nation-wide, state-by-state study of the tax structure which would include the needs and means of support for all governmental agencies and services. (2) In the meantime, we need to encourage in most states the assumption of greater and greater responsibility for school appropriations on the part of the state legislature. The flexible and equitable pattern of taxation open to the state should be applied to the support of schools to free an additional portion of the property tax for more purely *local* responsibilities. (3) Either we must work diligently and successfully to alter the trend which has made the federal government the greatest tax collecting agency in our history, or we must admit that the federal government is the most effective agency for tax collection and work diligently and successfully for adequate federal support for public education from the kindergarten through the university. Unless education is to suffer the paradox of decadence in the midst of wealth, the time to take these steps is now.

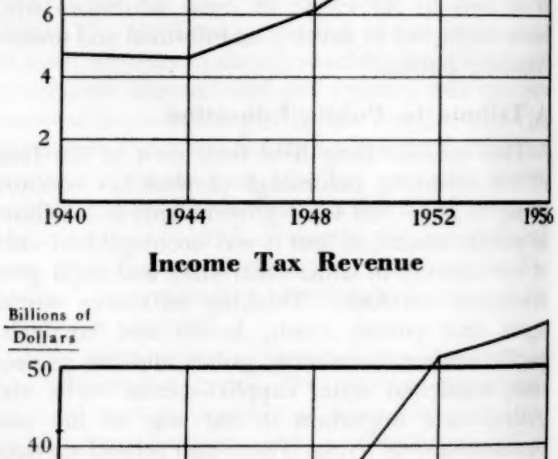
PROPERTY AND INCOME TAX REVENUE

	Property Tax Revenue	Income Tax Revenue
	(Figures in Millions)	
1940	$ 4,694	$ 2,483
1944	4,604	35,421
1948	6,126	30,035
1952	8,652	50,991
1956	11,749	55,495

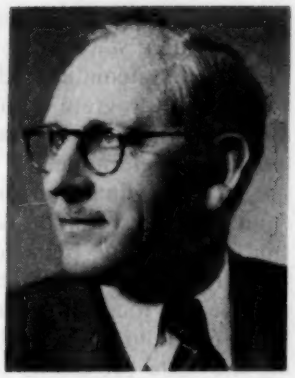
Property Tax Revenue



Income Tax Revenue



Improving State Programs Of School Support



MORPHET

State support programs in the U. S. differ widely, as do public attitudes toward education. One state, for example, tolerates a foundation program which permits one wealthy district to spend thirteen times as much per unit as is available to foundation districts.

A recognized authority on school finance here suggests procedures for appraising state finance provisions and describes characteristics of a satisfactory program.

By **EDGAR L. MORPHET**

THE attitude of the people in each country toward education tends to determine not only the manner in which the educational program is organized and conducted but what is accomplished through education. This does not mean that everyone in a nation has the same attitude toward education but that the prevailing attitude is significant. This observation applies to the people in each state in the United States. As a result of the conceptions and attitudes of the citizens of the state, various policies regarding education have evolved. These policies may be reasonably consistent and harmonious, or may involve serious unresolved conflicts and inconsistencies. The policies of the people are expressed in the constitutional provisions, laws, regulations and traditions relating to various aspects of the educational program.

One way of assessing a state's policy towards education is to study its provisions for financing schools. Finance is a powerful instrument which may be used to facilitate or to retard the development of education. The amount of money provided, the purposes for which it may be used, and the conditions which must be observed in spending the funds greatly influence the kind and quality of educational program found in the public schools. Of course a good basic plan for the organization and administration of education and for providing and encouraging leadership will facilitate prudential use of the funds and tend to result in a better program of education than a poor plan. Each is a significant determiner of the potential. Each, in the final analysis, is decided by the attitude of the people and their representatives.

Procedures for Appraising Finance Provisions

As pointed out by the N. E. A. Committee on Tax Education and School Finance, "an ultimate test of financial policy is the wholesomeness of the educational conditions in each administrative unit. If the policies are sound, the conditions will be good in the great cities, in the small cities, and in the villages and in the rural areas; they will be good in rich communities, in average communities, and in poor communities."[1]

MR. MORPHET *(Beta Mu 122) is professor of education at the University of California, Berkeley.* *This article is adapted from materials prepared for a forthcoming book,* Financing the Public Schools, *written in collaboration with Roe L. Johns (Beta 877), University of Florida, and published by Prentice-Hall.*

(The nationwide study of school finance made by the 1950-51 Phi Delta Kappa Commission on Support of Public Education, chaired by Mr. Morphet, is still useful and may still be obtained by addressing the Phi Delta Kappa business manager at Bloomington. Ask for it by title, "Some Effects of School Finance Policies and Practices on the Public School Program.")

[1] National Education Association, *Guides to the Improvement of State School Finance Programs.* Committee on Tax Education and School Finance. Washington, D. C.: National Education Association, 1958. p. 7.

How can the wholesomeness of the financial policies in a state be tested? Obviously there should be systematic studies of all aspects of the educational program periodically as one basis for appraising the finance policy. It is equally important to determine the extent to which the entire plan of financial support is adequate and equitable. This cannot be done satisfactorily by studying any one phase of the plan in isolation, but will require the careful study of all aspects of state and local provisions for financing schools. Some procedures which should be used in appraising the state provisions for financing schools are discussed briefly.

It should be obvious that laymen as well as educators should participate cooperatively in planning and conducting needed studies to be used as a basis for appraising state programs of finance as well as for planning improvements in the program. Laymen have as great a stake in the educational program as educators and unless both have an opportunity to understand problems and needs there will be little likelihood that agreement can be reached on proposals for improvements.[2]

Characteristics of a Satisfactory Program

Everyone who is studying a state or local program for financing schools has in mind certain assumptions regarding the characteristics of a satisfactory program. If the assumptions are unsound, the evaluation is almost certain to be unacceptable to people who hold different assumptions.

The following characteristics[3] of a satisfactory state program of financial support have been generally accepted by authorities in the field of school finance. They have been stated in various ways at different times, but the key ideas seem to be acceptable and therefore should be used as a basis for developing or evaluating programs of finance in the various states.

1. The plan of financial support for schools in each state should be designed to assure a foundation program providing essential, reasonably adequate, and well-rounded educational opportunities for all who should benefit from public education.

2. Provision should be made for a bona fide state-local partnership plan for financing this foundation program of educational opportunity.

3. Each school district (or county) should be expected and required to make the same minimum local effort toward financing the foundation program.

4. The state should provide for each district, on an objective basis, the difference between the funds available from the required uniform minimum tax effort and the cost of the foundation program.

5. The plan for financing the foundation program should assure reasonable equity for all taxpayers.

6. The educational and financial provisions for the foundation program should encourage sound and efficient organization, administration, and operation of local school districts and schools.

7. The foundation program plan should provide maximum opportunity and encouragement for the development and exercise of local leadership and responsibility in education.

8. The citizens of each local school system should be authorized to provide and finance such educational opportunities beyond the foundation program as they desire.

9. The foundation program plan should be cooperatively developed by representative citizens who have a genuine interest in and concern about public education.

10. The program and procedures should emphasize continuous evaluation and sound long-range planning.

Use of Criteria

These statements of characteristics, or similar acceptable statements, should be used as criteria constituting one basis for studying and evaluating the program of financial support in each state. An attempt should be made to determine whether each criterion is satisfactorily observed, and, after each has been studied, to ascertain the overall implications.

Other Procedures To Be Used

The discussion below directs attention to some items which are particularly important and should have special consideration over and above those which may be implied by studying the criteria and their implications.[4]

Are there any rewards for inefficiency or lack of economy?[5] In some cases the state provisions for financing schools tend to perpetuate inefficiently organized districts or schools, stimulate em-

[2] For discussion and guides to suggested procedures, see Edgar L. Morphet, "Who Should Solve America's Educational Problems?", *The Nation's Schools*, March, 1959.

[3] Morphet, Edgar L., Ben M. Harris, and C. Earl Miller, Jr.: *Financial Equalization for the Public Schools of California.* 1959 Legislative Problems: No. 1. Berkeley: Bureau of Public Administration, University of California.

[4] Adapted from Edgar L. Morphet, "The Foundation Program and Public School Finance," *State Government* (special education issue), Vol. XXV, No. 9, September, 1952. p. 192-196.

[5] Illustrations may be found in "Some Effects of Finance Policies and Practices on the Public School Program." Phi Delta Kappa Commission on Support of Public Education. *The Phi Delta Kappan*, Vol. XXXIII, No. 1, September, 1951.

phasis on certain aspects of the educational program through special appropriations, encourage uneconomical expenditures, or promote inefficiency by various unsound, but often unintentional, features.

Has provision been made for all essential elements of school costs? Some states provide funds only for certain special purposes and not for others. A number of states have provided more generously for certain aspects of the program (such as high schools or vocational education) than for others. A thorough examination should show whether the state plan helps to assure, or to retard the development of, a comprehensive and properly balanced educational program.

Are there any undesirable state controls? Most state requirements undoubtedly were not designed to restrict local initiative or responsibility. However, studies show that a number of states have such limitations on taxes, on authority to vote bonds, or on ability of districts to use funds for the kind of program they desire, that local initiative and responsibility may be discouraged.

Are the sources of revenue for school support reasonably related to the sources of income of the people of the state? This question involves the issue as to whether too large a proportion of the funds may be derived from property taxes or from other tax sources in the various districts or on a statewide basis.

Are the measures of need sound and realistic? Rough measures of need that represent only approximations or that include subjective provisions are no longer considered desirable.

Is local financial ability properly and equitably determined? When assessment practices vary, as they do in most states, the requirement for a uniform millage levy is not equitable. Either an assessment ratio or an index plan becomes necessary. In determining local ability, major sources of revenue other than property taxes should also be taken into consideration.

Is provision made for adequate financial support? Many states for one reason or another have made a gesture toward financing schools but have not gone far enough to assure that schools in all districts can be properly supported. If the state provides only a small appropriation, only a certain percentage of the cost (for example, 60 per cent) or omits entirely certain aspects such as transportation or capital outlay, provisions are almost certain to be inadequate.

Is the plan equitable? The expenditure per pupil, per weighted pupil, or per classroom unit, has frequently been used as a means of determining whether the financial provisions of a state are equitable. However, these expenditures may reflect very high effort in some districts and very low effort in others.

A comprehensive study along this line was made by the Office of Education in 1950.[6] This study showed the range in current expense (except for transportation) per classroom unit in districts throughout each state. Expenditures were used because it was found impracticable to obtain information based on receipts from uniform local effort. *The expenditures in the United States ranged from less than $1,000 in a few classroom units to over $12,000 in others.* The range in some of the states was nearly as great as that found when all districts in the nation were considered. However, for one reason or another, the range in several states was relatively small. For example, in Utah the range was from only about $3,500 per classroom unit to about $6,500. This range, of course, reflected in part the impact of the relatively large districts found in the state, but it may have also reflected undesirable state limitations on tax levies and expenditure for the various districts.

A much better procedure is illustrated by a study recently completed in California.[7] In this study an attempt was made to determine for each of the districts selected for study (1) the amount of revenue available from state funds, except those for capital outlay and transportation (funds for purposes such as capital outlay and transportation should not be included because they are not directly related to expenditures per classroom unit and would distort the picture for a number of districts); (2) the amount available from the uniform local effort required to participate in the foundation program, assuming that every district should at least make that local effort; (3) the number of classroom units in the district (using a formula similar to the one used in *Expenditures for Education at the Mid-Century*). From this information it was possible to determine the amount available per classroom unit in each district by dividing the revenue from state and local sources by the number of classroom units.

When this procedure is used it is possible to hold local effort constant and thus study the

[6] Clayton D. Hutchins and Albert R. Munse, *Expenditures for Education at the Mid-Century*, Office of Education, Miscellaneous No. 18, Department of Health, Education, and Welfare. Washington, D. C.: U. S. Government Printing Office, 1953.

[7] Morphet, Edgar L., Ben M. Harris, and C. Earl Miller, Jr.: *Financial Equalization for the Public Schools of California.*

probable impact of the financial program on educational opportunity. When expenditures are used rather than revenue, local effort is not held constant. In the California study, it was found that on the basis of uniform local effort, the elementary district having greatest ability per classroom unit (which received flat grant funds but did not need foundation program funds) had available over thirteen times the amount per unit as the foundation program districts. Even though high-school districts were generally much larger and more wealthy than most elementary districts, the study showed that the amount available per classroom unit on this basis was approximately four times as much in the most wealthy high-school district as in those benefiting from the foundation program.

Studies made in a number of states show that the amount of revenue available per classroom unit, assuming uniform local effort, is, in the more wealthy districts, several times that available in the least wealthy districts. Thus it should be evident that there are some serious problems to be faced in such states. The problems arise partly from the district structure. When there are many small districts there are bound to be extremes in wealth, and no foundation program can be developed which will even out inequities. The studies also point to possible inadequacies in the foundation program. It may be that, as in the case of California, so much emphasis has been placed on flat grants that too limited funds are made available for developing the foundation program.

The important conclusion which can be drawn from these studies is that either the taxpayers or the pupils (or both) in the more wealthy districts in a number of states have a decided advantage over those residing in foundation program districts. If more favored districts choose to do so, they can almost obtain a monopoly of the good teachers in the state. The foundation program districts in such situations will constantly be confronted with the probability of losing their best personnel and, consequently, will always be handicapped.

All states, therefore, should make studies of this type from time to time and when they find serious inequities should determine what steps can be taken either to improve their foundation program or to improve their district organization, or probably to improve both.

Federal Loan Program Goes into Effect

► Federal funds totalling $6 million were allocated on February 3 by U. S. Commissioner of Education Lawrence G. Derthick to 1,227 colleges and universities in all forty-nine states, the District of Columbia, Hawaii, and Puerto Rico for the establishment of National Defense Student Loan Programs.

With the allocation of these funds (the total thus far appropriated for student loans), all nine basic programs authorized by the National Defense Education Act are now in operation.

College students and high school graduates wishing to obtain a student loan may apply to any of the institutions to which funds have been allocated. Special consideration must be given to students with superior academic backgrounds who intend to teach in elementary or secondary schools or those whose academic backgrounds indicate superior capacity or preparation in science, mathematics, engineering, or a modern foreign language.

Fifty per cent of each student loan will be cancelled for five years of full-time teaching in a public elementary or secondary school.

The total made available for student loans, including the portion contributed by administering institutions, is $6,667,000, which would provide 6,667 loans if every student received the maximum $1,000 loan.

The President's budget proposes a supplemental appropriation of $24 million for the remainder of this fiscal year. This, together with institutional funds, would provide an additional 26,000 loans at the $1,000 maximum. Virtually all loans, however, will be less than the maximum, thus increasing the number.

Institutions applying for loans requested a total of nearly $62 million, for loans and commitments during the remainder of the present year. Total money allotted to colleges and universities in a state is determined by that state's proportion of the national full-time college enrollment. Allocations to institutions in each state were made on the basis of the individual requests as related to the total institutional requests in the state and the student loan fund allotment for the state.

* * *

"Basic issues must be faced now. Nothing less than a massive national effort, launched immediately, will do. Local support and control will remain the best safeguards and guarantors of excellence for our diverse educational system. They can and should be preserved, but bickering over forms and sources of financial support necessary to meet the present emergency can be disastrous. Positive and immediate action on all levels—federal, state, local, and voluntary—is the first imperative."

—Problems and Policies Committee, American Council on Education

BOOKS

for leaders

The Conant Report: A Preliminary Appraisal

By **WILLIAM M. ALEXANDER**

SCHOOL board members, professional educators, and other citizens have eagerly awaited the report of the Conant Study of the American High School. Some may be surprised to find *The American High School Today,* the report released by McGraw-Hill Book Company on January 28, to be only 140 pages in length, this including 44 pages of appendixes. Described as "A First Report to Interested Citizens," this highly significant document is issued in a $1.00 paperback edition as well as in a hard cover. Whether or not there will be another report is not indicated in the publication, but Dr. Conant has personally assured the writer that one will be forthcoming. Indeed he is now noting questions on the first report that might be answered in another.

Many of the Conant recommendations have already been widely publicized through Conant's numerous speeches throughout the country, and by articles in various popular magazines and other publications (see PHI DELTA KAPPAN for November, 1958). Those who agree with the recommendations or who at least wish their consideration encouraged may be pleased to see them now available to the general public in such brief and inexpensive form. As one of those hoping the report will be carefully studied, the present reviewer is venturing herewith to appraise the report from the standpoint of its development, its recommendations, and its possible impact on American secondary education.

Even before the report appeared, questions and criticisms were voiced by some educators as to the procedures of the Conant study. Some objected to describing as a "study" a series of first-hand school observations even by such an intelligent observer as the former Harvard president and U. S. high commissioner to Germany. Others objected to limiting the observations to "comprehensive" high schools. Neither of these objections is likely to be lessened very much by the report itself.

Indeed, other limitations may now be noted. Dr. Conant visited fifty-five schools in eighteen states. He was concerned only with grades 9-12 (although he expects, according to our recent conversation, to study grades 7 and 8 now). He gave scant attention to the big cities and to suburban schools. By his own statement (p. 16), "this report is in no sense a survey of the comprehensive high school," and "the study has made no attempt to answer such questions as 'How satisfactory is the typical American high school?' " His evaluation of the schools to determine their comprehensiveness was based on his own criteria, developed after some preliminary school visits, and reviewed by a number of experienced school administrators. The recommendations resulting from the study are closely related to the criteria, and perhaps some could have been made without the intervening school visits.

This reviewer hopes that such criticisms of the procedures employed by the Conant study will not interfere with discussion of the report itself. In the first place, despite the somewhat misleading title, this study was not intended to be an all-inclusive one. In the second place, the recommendations are specific, and their careful discussion should be beneficial even if further data need to be collected on some of them. In the third place, useful data were gathered in the study and made available in the report, especially in the appendixes. Finally, and more significant, this eminent American, unlike several self-appointed and outspokenly vitriolic critics of education, *has* visited the schools, talked to school people, and made determined and positive efforts to test, and even reconstruct, his own ideas against present school practice.

Of the four sections of the report, Section III, "Recommendations for Improving Public Secondary Education," will undoubtedly get greatest attention. Section I reviews succinctly and interestingly "The Characteristics of American Education," to justify very well indeed Conant's interest in the comprehensive high school as a significant, unique American institution. Section II summarizes briefly the methods and the findings of the study of selected comprehensive high schools with particular respect to their provision for three main objectives: general education for all, terminal education for those not planning further schooling, and preparatory education for those going on to college. This section also includes

W. M. ALEXANDER *(Psi 712) is a professor of education at George Peabody College for Teachers. On March 5 he will become president of the 7,000 member Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.*

comments on the quality of teaching of mathematics and science. Section IV deals in summary fashion with the small high school, the large city high school, and the suburban high school, as schools having "a limited degree of comprehensiveness." The appendixes include a list of the schools visited; an explanation of the evaluation of the schools by Conant's criteria; the inventories of studies completed in high school by academically talented graduates (in 1957) of twenty-two of the high schools; descriptions of vocational education programs and data as to enrollments in these; data as to the size of high schools; and instructions for preparing an academic inventory. All of these materials may be very useful to students of secondary education.

The chief recommendations of the report are not listed among the twenty-one specific ones which comprise Section III. These more general recommendations, which appear or are implied at various points in the report, are as follows:

1. Maintain the comprehensive high school, rather than establish separate academic high schools.

2. Eliminate small high schools (those having a graduating class of fewer than 100).

3. Maintain and improve community control of the high school—note Conant's "final word": "avoid generalizations, recognize the necessity of diversity, get the facts about your local situation, elect a good school board, and support the efforts of the board to improve the schools." (p. 96)

This reviewer can find nothing with which to disagree in the principles of these major recommendations, nor indeed will educators in general. The first recommendation is excellent support in meeting such proposals as those of Admiral Rickover for selective, "demonstration" high schools. The second will become another, needed argument for consolidation in many school districts, although the criterion of size will be widely questioned. The third is a clearcut answer to those Americans who would further centralize educational control.

The twenty-one recommendations in Section III will probably continue to evoke varied reactions. The reviewer, for example, is in substantial agreement with those concerning the following items: expanded counseling system (No. 1); individualized programs of studies (No. 2); required subjects (No. 3); a durable supplement to the diploma giving a record of studies and grades (No. 5); diversified vocational programs (No. 7); special programs for very slow readers (No. 8); programs for highly gifted pupils (No. 10); preparation of academic inventories (No. 11); elimination of rank-in-class designations (No. 14); developmental reading programs (No. 16); operation of tuition-free summer schools (No. 17); four years of a foreign language (No. 18); cross-sectional homerooms continuing through the senior high years (No. 20); and a twelfth-grade social studies course for all students (No. 21). Although many educators may question one or more of these proposals, in general their acceptance will probably be widespread. The argument will come over the implementation of those (for example, Nos. 1, 7, 8, 10, 16, 17, 18, 21) that require additional trained personnel and other items which run squarely into shortages of personnel and funds.

Other recommendations appear highly controversial. Grouping by ability in each required subject and some electives is recommended (No. 4) with little data to resolve existing controversies in this regard. Reducing the English teacher's load to 100 pupils (No. 6) may not be accepted by other teachers as the way to assure better English composition. The recommended program for academically talented students (No. 9) leaves little room for electives unless the school day is reorganized into more than six periods, as is proposed in another recommendation (No. 12) sure to provoke disagreement.

Three recommendations seem somewhat inconsistent with Conant's emphasis on individualization and flexibility in programming: prerequisites to be completed with a grade of "C" before admission to certain further courses in mathematics, science, and foreign languages (No. 13); academic honors list for the academically talented but some unspecified "special recognition" for students in nonacademic sequences (No. 15); "practical" courses in chemistry and physics with standards "such that students with less than average ability will have difficulty passing the course" (No. 19). One wonders if parents and others may not shy away from practices which appear to relegate the below-average achiever to a second-rate program. Although fully accepting the desirability of a "stiff" program for the academically talented students, the reviewer believes some of these will continue to be "late bloomers" who need opportunity for challenge throughout high school. And might not even the below-average but hard-working student benefit from really "practical" chemistry and physics?

His study of the American high school should add to James B. Conant's niche in American educational history. His great prestige will make the report read and talked about in many homes and organizations heretofore interested only in local

school issues or perhaps momentarily in some less constructive and authoritative but more sensational article or book. This report is decidedly timely, and it will be heard respectfully. Undoubtedly, it will be cited to support many school improvement programs and proposals during the next few years.

It will be unfortunate if the full use of the report is dissipated by violent disagreement with specific recommendations. Yet there is this danger. Secondary school educators who wish it used by local study groups, faculties, and boards of education should make certain that Sections I and II are studied and discussed before futile controversies are fed by specific recommendations in Section III.

In summary, my considered appraisal leads to these predictions:

1. That this report will be widely read and even more widely cited.

2. That it will be used effectively to resist movements toward establishing selective academic high schools.

3. That it may aid proponents of school consolidation efforts, but not enough to create any sharp reductions in the number of small schools unless the financial and social difficulties in consolidation are generally aided by other sources.

4. That the twenty-one specific recommendations will be used to support and refute many local proposals, with the final decisions being based on such varied factors as to make impossible any evaluation of the Conant report's influence on these decisions.

5. Most important, that this report may mark the completion of an already significant turn in the public press and in public discussions away from attacks on secondary education and toward realistic appraisal of the financial and personnel problems involved in improving secondary education in the United States.

A Reply to Frederick Mayer's 'Letter to a Teacher' (January KAPPAN)

My dear Professor Mayer:

The average graduating class of medical doctors will have perhaps one Schweitzer-like soul. The others will be sounding out their relatives and friends to find "good" (meaning lucrative) practices that will be available soon. Or they will be considering specializing in something like skin diseases—"you know, they never get well, they never die, and, best of all, no house calls."

The average graduating class of lawyers will have, perhaps, a few idealistic souls who are bound and determined to help the people who need it to find justice. The others are after the big money, directly or indirectly, through connections with established, influential law firms, through seeking of publicity and prestige for future office, or other means.

But the average graduating class of teachers, you tell me, should consist entirely of Christ-like characters who will ignore the needs of their families, labor twice as hard as anyone else to make a living, work in unfavorable circumstances handicapped by an uncooperative public (indeed, in many cases, by an uncooperative administration as well), and remain idealistic. All this for the reward of having contributed to the enrichment and betterment of others.

I say, Professor Mayer, that you are more than an idealist. You are a dreamer. There is no reason to expect more from teachers than from any other responsible profession. The fact that we get more from teachers is a tremendous tribute to their character, but this fortunate circumstance is something that we should cease to depend and impose upon. It is well, perhaps, to set up such attitudes as ideals; but it is at least as important to reduce the disadvantages that befall the person entering teaching as a career. Worrying about doctor bills, about keeping up the payments on the car, about sending the children to college—these worries will not make me a better teacher. On the other hand, spending time and energy on my second job after school will definitely make me a poor teacher.

Being realistic without being cynical, we must realize that in our culture one usually gets just about what he pays for. The American public is getting good value for its education dollar, but I do not believe that the American public is satisfied with what it is getting. The only answer, then, is to move up a notch and obtain better teachers and all the "fixings." This will cost more money, and the public will pay it when it wants that quality of education badly enough. If anyone thinks it is possible to get better teachers any other way, he probably also believes in the feasibility of perpetual-motion machines.

Your Friend,

Thomas Schneider (Alpha Omega 797),
Cody High School, Detroit, Michigan. (Now on NSF Scholarship, University of Michigan.)

Education, Science, And the New Religion

"The overwhelming problems of our country are how to make democracy a reality, how to survive in the nuclear age, and what to do with ourselves if we do survive. None of these problems is technological. . . ."
—R. M. Hutchins, Feb. 21 *Saturday Review*

Almost everyone recognizes that America is engaged in a mortal struggle with an alien way of life.

How can we best prosecute that struggle?

By establishing ruthless priorities in developing the economy?
By making production specialists of our finest talent?
By placing full faith in the physical sciences?

The KAPPAN has received many manuscripts protesting the tendency to answer these questions affirmatively. Here is a good example.

By **BEN M. HARRIS**

AMERICAN society, and perhaps that of the entire world, appears to be making a religion out of science and technology. Everywhere the observer turns to listen to the hopes and fears of the people, the word "science" is persistently heard.

The press anticipates the launching of each new rocket with front page speculation about possible scientific achievements. Each new atomic or hydrogen explosion produces widespread fear or exhilaration, depending upon which country performs the deed. The words of Hildebrands, Rickovers, and Seaborgs are received with a solemnity once reserved for pronouncements of the prophets.

This new interest in and acceptance of science by the so-called common man would be gratifying indeed if it suggested general understanding of the enormous potential of the scientific method applied to many of man's problems. But the contrary seems to be true. Science and technology, which are tools designed to serve man's reasoned ends, have become the golden calves of this generation. The new religion, like older ones, has its idols, its prophets, and its own offer of salvation. The idols? Atomic bombs, guided missiles, and Sputniks. The prophets? Atomic scientists and engineers. The offer of salvation? "Give us your children, your schools, and all available resources of your nation, and we shall build a bastion armed with terrible weapons of massive retaliation behind which we can live peacefully forevermore!"

This new religion has powerful advocates; it is appealing to many; it strives to indoctrinate through the schools.

This religion's current popularity depends partially upon its appeal to both the radical and reactionary elements in society. It has reactionary appeal in its rejection of many of the newest developments in the social sciences, accepting only the physical sciences and mathematics as having intellectual worth or practical significance. It is appealing to the radical because of the ease with which it casts aside much of the heritage and the traditions of humanitarianism in the Western world. This religion appeals to those who are weary of the burdens involved in thinking about grave world problems. The prophets of the new religion offer simple answers to broad, complex world problems. Physicists and chemists become over-night experts on social and political problems. Generals and admirals confidently testify as educators, philosophers, and statesmen, un-

MR. HARRIS *(Lambda 1911) is an assistant professor of educational administration at the University of Texas, Austin.*

burdened by any weight of experience or training in these fields.

And many of us are saying hallelujah and amen in response to the preachings of certain strange new prophets. The prestige of some of those who espouse the new religion combines with the mystery and demonstrated effectiveness of the physical sciences to command a following in time of stress.

Yielding to Technical Hypnosis?

Clarence B. Randall, chairman of the board of the Inland Steel Company, expressed his concern over the idolization of the physical sciences in an address at Harvard University. " . . . I fear that as a nation we Americans are in danger of yielding to technical hypnosis. We behave at times as though we believed that all problems can be resolved by the processes of physical research and the application of engineering methods."[1]

All new ideological movements focus some part of their attention upon education. The new religion is no exception. Interest in the schools is so widely shared, in the United States, that education provides a natural field upon which to campaign for an idea with maximum public attention. It is not at all surprising, then, that the current criticisms of the American high schools have been directed largely toward re-shaping our schools along lines consistent with the new religion. A similar pattern is developing at the college level as well. These are not by any means the only criticisms of the educational system. The last decade has been one of extensive critical evaluation of our public schools, and leading educators have been taking a conspicuous part in much of it. On the whole, this has been healthy for education.

A New Fundamental Goal

The proponents of the new religion of the physical sciences would, however, re-shape the American high school in some interesting ways without much regard for anything except mathematics, courses in the physical sciences, and perhaps foreign languages. The fundamental goal of American education would become the training of the gifted youth in the physical sciences, while making technicians out of those not so gifted.

The new religion's advocates, while violently assailing "progressive" education and "educationists," reject also nearly all of the goals of education tested over the past 100 years and strongly advocated from the time of Benjamin Franklin and Thomas Jefferson to the present. Franklin's pleas for the practical education and Jefferson's regard for education for citizenship seem lost in the stampede for technical superiority. The plea of the new religion appears to be simply that school work should be "tough," and that means mostly chemistry, mathematics, and physics. The traditional goals of education which emphasize moral and spiritual values, philosophy, human understandings, appreciation of beauty, and the like are largely ignored or disdained. They are dismissed as "frills" and naively presumed to be "soft" courses. Finally, the new ideology would relegate to third rate status the newer social and psychological disciplines; they are not even taken seriously as sciences.

This religion of technology and science is being built upon a group of very fallacious beliefs. Three myths have evolved as the heart of the new religion's program for public education:

1. *Gifted youth must study science and mathematics, above all else.* This is a most persistent new myth, often expressed, always implied. The gifted are destined to be the leaders of the world, and through training in the physical sciences they are to attain the wisdom of leadership. This view is expressed by Admiral Rickover, who marvels at Russian and European education and advises: " . . . a nation survives today more by reason of having excellent scientists and engineers than good doctors and lawyers. . . . "[2] It is almost certain that this myth, *a la* Rickover, would include teachers, sociologists, psychologists, and others in the latter category.

The fallacy of this view hardly needs to be pointed out. Obviously, able leadership is needed in all fields. But there is considerable evidence that the greatest problems to which leadership must turn its attention are not necessarily in the realm of the physical sciences. Our great needs are for solutions to the problems of social and human relations. This is not to ignore such very grave world problems as over-population, underproduction, and disease. These, too, are primarily human relations problems. Scientist Glen T. Seaborg, now chancellor of the University of California, is among those who see some of these broader problems of our society. He has pointed out that " . . . very serious economic and political reversals may affect us in the future unless we encourage the development of trained brainpower in all fields; including economic analysis."[3]

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[1] From "A Businessman Looks at the Liberal Arts," *The Randall Lectures*, Fund for Adult Education, White Plains, N. Y., January, 1957, p. 4.

[2] Quoted in *U. S. News & World Report*, December 6, 1957, p. 89.

[3] *Science*, February 15, 1957, p. 314.

2. *Education is essentially a vocational matter. Courses taught for other purposes are either useless "frills" or are relatively unimportant.*

This view is implicit in much of the ridicule of a variety of high-school courses and in the emphasis placed upon the kind of college preparatory work in high school which aims at vocations and professions. Certain critics apparently attach little importance to education for effective citizenship in a democracy. The new myth suggests that the gifted leaders will have all the right answers. Others need only have proper respect for the wisdom of scientist-leaders; they must be trained to do as directed.

(Reassuringly, we can find scientific leaders who do not share this view. Dael Wolfle, executive officer for the American Association for the Advancement of Science, writes: "Education in science needs much improvement. I am not here talking about the education of scientists, but about a more difficult problem, the education of non-scientists. . . . It is as important for a citizen to understand the influence of scientific and technological developments on the economy of his country as to understand the historical influences that shape that country."[4])

Believers in this myth regard education for personal happiness as being of no consequence, despite the evidence that this aspect of education is one of the more serious national problems: Divorce rates are unprecedented; one person in ten goes to a mental institution at some time in his life; an estimated half of our population is sufficiently maladjusted to benefit from some type of psychological or psychiatric help.

Education for parenthood, for family life, for cultural appreciation, for constructive leisure—all are dumped into one of two baskets. They are labeled frills, to be discarded, or non-essentials, to survive if they can.

3. *Good education is "tough" education. Only certain subjects are "tough"; the "soft" must go.*

It seems inconceivable that intelligent, well-educated people could seriously categorize some subjects as tough and others as soft. These terms are conveniently loaded but relatively meaningless. Even with some reasonably acceptable definitions, the relative toughness of a subject would obviously depend upon the individual course, who was taking it, the level or depth of the course content, the methods of presentation of the teacher, the purposes for which the course was being taught, and a variety of other factors. Any subject could well be either tough or soft depending upon definition and some of these other factors. High-school students give testimony to having found both types of course in all subjects offered in America's high schools and colleges. Still, the new-found experts in matters educational are everywhere advising the public to demand the "tough" subjects and to expurgate the "soft." What these ideas add up to is this: "Teach more of my favorite subject"; or "Make learning so difficult that only the most able will survive to complete their education."

These three myths about education are persistently expressed, directly or by implication, in much of the current criticism of education. We refer to these views as myth because they have little basis in fact or logic. They cannot be defended on the basis of American traditions, educational experience, or an analysis of the needs of our country for the future.

The American people are not likely to accept such distorted thinking about their schools if the implications are clearly seen. The heritage of Western civilization has clearly placed the dignity and worth of each individual and the pursuit of freedom and happiness above all other goals. It is this same heritage that has nourished the rise of science as one of society's most efficient tools in the quest for greater human happiness. Surely, we will not permit the pursuit of science to become a Frankenstein monster threatening the very values we seek.

Even so, irreparable damage can be done if present trends persist. Dr. Robert Oppenheimer describes this danger: "Faced with all this, faced with the complexity, the variety and the rapid change which characterize both the intellectual scene and the world itself, there is a terrible temptation to seek for a key that is not there, the simple summary from which all else might follow. . . . I believe that we are now deeply injured by the simplification of this time. . . ."[5]

How will the leaders of the public schools respond to these pressures for a high-school program based on the myths of this new religion? Will these pressures from influential individuals and special groups produce hasty, ill-advised changes in our high schools, changes which will have to be rejected later? Will the drive for science and more science cause our schools to neglect many other very real problems? Will this neglect bequeath to coming generations a seriously crippled American high-school system? These are very real dangers.

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[4] *Science*, February 1, 1957, p. 181.

[5] *Foreign Affairs*, January, 1958, p. 217-18.

The need of the American high school is not a narrow, rigid educational program geared to a view of society that would grant all leadership to the field of the physical sciences and all able youth to education for science. The need is for a system of education which has goals consistent with the broad needs of a complex society. A system is essential which is flexible to changes in society's needs; an educational program designed to promote the maximum development of each individual regardless of ability. This will undoubtedly call for much reshaping of the American high school now and in the future. But art and precision are needed in this re-shaping. Many minds and loving hands should turn to the task of creating a new and finer school system for all youth. There is no place in this operation for simple answers and wood-butcher techniques.

Some Current Needs in EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH

By THEODORE CLYMER

Significant of growing interest are such events as the pending formation, in April, of an AERA-sponsored 20-organization Council for Research in Education, and a Phi Delta Kappa-sponsored National Research Symposium at the University of Virginia. Careful appraisals of current status and need are required. Here is a starter.

WHILE many needs in educational research are immediately apparent, five broad areas seem particularly to demand study. These five areas, as revealed by the literature, are:

1. The need to evaluate present status of research findings. What has research really uncovered thus far?
2. The need to develop a theoretical framework into which our present knowledge will fit. What are the theoretical principles that serve to unify this knowledge?
3. The need to improve certain characteristics of educational research. What statistical and design factors of research need improvement?
4. The need to stimulate research production. What procedures will result in more and better research?
5. The need to put research findings into practice. How should the bridge from research to classroom practice be made?

MR. CLYMER *(Eta 1439) is an associate professor of education in the Departments of Elementary Education and Psychology, University of Minnesota.*

Each of these five areas will be discussed briefly.

1. *The need to evaluate present status of research findings.*

A professor of education in a large midwestern university has recently been asking his colleagues to lunch to discuss the basic generalizations in the colleagues' fields. He reports that discussion proceeds quite smoothly until he asks the question, "What research basis is there for the basic principles which you adhere to in your field?" Many of his colleagues find this question uncomfortable and difficult to answer. While education will never reach the stage where it can discard all ideas which cannot be experimentally validated, it would seem reasonable to expect that all persons in education would carefully differentiate those ideas clearly based on research, those ideas which seem to be supported by research, and those which for the present, at least, must rest on philosophical foundations.

In order to know effectively a particular field in education, many needs must be met. These needs include at least the points discussed below.

Historical perspective is essential to understanding the status of research in any particular area today. McKim (27), Monroe (31), and the American Educational Research Association (AERA) publication, *Twenty-five Years of Educational Research* (33) provide the beginning of the background which is needed to interpret educational status today. Without such a perspective, the student is unable to evaluate trends properly or to understand fully the forces which influence educational thought and practice today.

A second source of understanding will come from a familiarity with the primary sources in the

literature. Often students are relying entirely on secondary sources which give summaries and interpretations of research. Some are not even familiar with secondary sources, as was the student who assured his graduate adviser that his (the student's) research must be original, as he had never read about any. Obviously, a student is unable to read all of the original research material to obtain his information, but it seems likely that there has been a much greater drift away from the primary source than should occur under any circumstances. This means that in many cases the student of today is relying upon others for the interpretation of research findings.

As an illustration, nearly any student at a large midwestern university can tell you that trait differences are 80 per cent of individual differences. Fewer students would be able to tell you that this figure is based on the research of Hull (20), and even fewer of these students have examined the research of Hull to determine whether it warrants the attention it has received in curriculum planning.

A step which must be taken to evaluate the present status of research in all fields is to prepare comprehensive surveys of the research findings in those fields. Little pamphlets cannot adequately achieve these purposes. Reviews such as those found in the *Encyclopedia of Educational Research* (30) cannot meet them either. Such reviews serve the purpose of people outside a given field, but must of necessity be less detailed and comprehensive than what is needed by those who work actively in a particular area. The old American Council on Education study, *Educational Research* (24), was an abortive attempt to meet the objective of evaluating current research information. It failed because it attempted too much. Summaries such as the ones prepared by David Russell on children's thinking (37) and Swenson on the research on retroactive inhibition (41) are good examples of what needs to be done. Such volumes, which evaluate and interpret critically the many thousands of research articles in reading, spelling, or arithmetic, would be invaluable to persons working in these fields.

The need to evaluate the present status of our knowledge is one of the greatest needs of educational research.

2. *The need to develop the theoretical framework into which our present knowledge will fit.*

Great differences of opinion exist as to the probable and possible contribution of theory building to educational research. Auston (1) stresses the need for an overall theory which will cut across all educational research areas. Traxler thinks (44, p. 359) that "we are still at the exploratory and formative stages of a comparatively new science." Traxler also suggests, however, that research should be brought together so that it can be analyzed and trends recognized. As long ago as 1942, Buswell (26, p. iv) suggested that educational research had reached a maturity where fact-finding was not enough; some exploratory theory should be the goal. McConnell, Scates, and Freeman in the same monograph (26) take relatively conservative views about the contribution of theory.

Harris (18) brought together a group of seventeen specialists from philosophy, the natural sciences, psychology, medical science, social science, and the humanities to consider the theory of "development" and its applications to their many fields. The results are less than highly satisfying if one hopes for the "developmental theory" to weld these diverse fields together.

Foshay (14) believes that much of our educational data is useless because it is uninterpreted. He calls for a clear interpretation of our data, because the "inert fact is the curse of mankind." The clearest recent example of fascinating but completely uninterpreted data is *One Boy's Day* (2). It is interesting and vital data, but completely devoid of any theoretical orientation or interpretation.

In summary, the problem in theory building seems to be a matter of how extensively a theory should attempt to predict. Traxler (44) is conservative in his hopes. Auston (1) seems ready for rather ambitious, even grand, theory building. Obviously, educational research cannot operate completely without theory. Yet the present state of understanding will not permit a law of relativity for some time.

3. *The need to improve certain characteristics of educational research.*

Stanley (40, p. 198) has expressed clearly one of the major needs of educational research:

> We badly need educational experimentation of the controlled variety. . . . We have shied away from designing and executing studies involving the manipulation of pertinent variables.

An examination of research shows the importance of Stanley's point. Much of our research has been correlational. Relatively few studies have been made by comparing two or more techniques of counseling, of vocabulary building, or of word recognition techniques. Very little research done by graduate students involves manipulation of variables. Students and their advisers seem to prefer research on a "one stop service" basis, much like a good filling station provides.

In such "one stop service" research, the student enters the school, briefcase bulging with tests. At the end of the day he emerges from the school to go home and place fresh answer sheets in his tests. He appears the next morning at a new school, winds his stop watch, and proceeds with another day of testing. So it goes, until the required "n" is reached and the data are collected. Such studies are quick, easy, and often worthless except that they enable the students, as Walker (46, p. 11) puts it, to "jump over the terrifying hurdle which separates them from the coveted degree." Such studies are "clean," in that they result in a clear F test or correlation matrix with little possibility of criticism of design or method of execution; but they often fail to contribute because they ask and answer inconsequential questions. Bold, broad studies which involve manipulation or important variables are needed. Such studies are often not clean. But such studies are needed, even though they permit a criticism of design or method of execution.

Longitudinal research is another area much neglected by graduate students. The reasons for this are too obvious to elaborate. (It must be noted, however, that some graduate students pursue their training long enough to permit splendid longitudinal studies.) Many questions in education must go unanswered until longitudinal research becomes much more frequently applied.

The need to apply modern statistical design and analysis is evident whenever research is examined. A nationally famous educator continues to conduct his research by matching pairs of students. While this may be an extreme example, the frequency of studies involving analysis of variance and covariance, factorial design, and other advanced techniques, leaves much to be desired.

A strange phenomenon of graduate research occurs in the area of statistics and design. The problems developed by students often lend themselves to the same statistical techniques in certain universities. In one large midwestern university, nearly all Ph.D. studies involve analysis of variance and covariance techniques. Does it seem odd that only problems which lend themselves to these techniques should occur to the students enrolled there?

While the characteristics for improvement discussed here do not exhaust the possibilities, they point a few directions.

4. *The need to stimulate research production.*

In this area, Brownell (6) sees a major problem in motivation. Colleges have not provided incentives for educators to continue research. Rewards evidently are greater, promotions faster, along other lines. (If research activities are not rewarded in some way, it seems obvious that they will soon cease; for to persist in such unrewarded activities would be a clear case of neurotic behavior.) Mills (28), in speaking of research in the small college, also sees the problem as one of emphasis and conviction.

Cooper (10) suggests that a major problem in research production is that staff energies are diverted into attractive but "deadly" (from the research point of view) promotional and administrative activities. The attractiveness of these promotional and administrative activities is demonstrated clearly by three surveys (8, 23, 7) conducted at the University of Minnesota. These surveys showed that in 1940-41, 47.6 per cent of the faculty did no research. In the academic year 1950-51, the figure was 47.3 per cent; and in 1954-55, the figure was 46.9 per cent. While these figures may not be truly comparable and "research" may have been narrowly defined, Stanley (40, p. 198) is correct when he states:

> Another reason for the paucity of educational experimentation is that university professors in schools of education typically do very little themselves.

In an unpublished paper, Harris (19) suggests methods of developing a graduate and undergraduate climate to promote research and research interest. Walker (46) sees need for an earlier emphasis. She outlines elementary school approaches to develop such a climate and makes suggestions for training research workers.

Speaking of climate in different terms, Brownell (6) calls for graduate programs to develop a "research itch" in doctoral candidates. Brownell's estimate is that only about 10 per cent of doctoral candidates do research beyond the degree requirements. This, according to Brownell, must indicate improper training programs.

One problem of research production may be the highly critical attitude toward research design being developed in certain graduate courses. Such attitudes may have the effect of paralyzing the student. He is so painfully aware of the lacks of his studies that he cannot bring himself to publish them or perhaps even to begin them.

In addition to problems of personnel and motivation, money has long been a problem in comprehensive educational research. By Public Law 531, Congress provided money for limited educational research through the U. S. Office of Education. The current projects are described by Conrad (9).

One ingenious and practical solution to the problem of research production is found in an

article by Bebell (4). He suggests that teaching is an aspect of research. Evidently, then, we all do research as we teach. Such a change in definition would increase research activity enormously!

A major step in the direction of increasing research production will be made when needs for research activities are aggressively communicated to a college staff by its administration. Aggressive communication could be defined as telling the staff that salaries and promotions depend upon research production. While there are no degrees of freedom for this next set of data, one state college president provides a fifty dollar yearly salary increase for every research article published. His staff has the highest research production of the state colleges in that state system.

One of the difficulties an administration faces in following such a program of emphasis on research is that teaching and service create their own demands. Without careful planning and determination, these two functions can usurp the time, effort, and money which should go to research.

5. *The need to put research findings into practice.*

Action research, now sometimes called "action-cooperative research," has been popularized by Corey (12) and others at Teachers College, Columbia, as a technique of putting research findings into practice in the classroom. The definition of action research is given by Corey (11, p. 375):

> Action research in education is research undertaken by practitioners in order that they may improve their practices.

Corey goes on to state that the motivation of the investigator is the primary difference between action research and traditional research (11, p. 376): "Action research is conducted in the heat of combat, so to speak." Such heat of combat may make it very difficult for the teacher to be objective as he conducts his experiment.

Corey recognized that the quality of such research may be poor. In answer to such criticism, he suggests (11, p. 377) " . . . quality is used in relative terms. It is possible to progress by small increments. . . . "

The action researchers evidently believe that poor research moves education ahead a little, and good research moves educational practices ahead a good deal. Such is not the case. Good research moves us ahead perhaps a lot—perhaps little. Poorly designed and badly executed research may lead sideways or even backwards. Poor research will not take us forward a little; more likely it will lead us in giant strides toward the "back forty."

'It Eats Hell Out of the Pipes'

Effective communication with the consumer of research remains a difficult problem, as Mr. Clymer indicates. Researchers develop special interests and tend to become language-bound. Fortunately, the situation in education is not quite so difficult as that reported by F. F. Colton in an article for the September, 1949, *Scientific Monthly* titled "Some of My Best Friends Are Scientists."* Mr. Colton wrote:

> A New York plumber of foreign extraction with a limited command of English wrote the National Bureau of Standards and said he found that hydrochloric acid quickly opened drainage pipes when they got clogged and asked if it was a good thing to use.
>
> A Bureau scientist replied:
>
> "The efficacy of hydrochloric acid is indisputable, but the corrosive residue is incompatible with metallic permanence."
>
> The plumber wrote back thanking the Bureau for telling him the method was all right. The scientist was a little disturbed and showed the correspondence to his boss, another scientist. The latter wrote the plumber:
>
> "We cannot assume responsibility for the production of toxic and noxious residue with hydrochloric acid and suggest you use an alternative procedure."
>
> The plumber wrote back that he agreed with the Bureau—hydrochloric acid works fine. A top scientist—boss of the first two—broke the impasse by tearing himself loose from technical terminology and writing this letter:
>
> "Don't use hydrochloric acid. It eats hell out of the pipes."

*As quoted by Mr. Clymer.

No one denies the need to involve teachers in curriculum improvement practices. The question is one of technique. Likely, where adequate consultation is not available it is better to encourage teachers to evaluate their present practices in light of certain generally acceptable principles, as is now being attempted in Minnesota. Without question, classroom teachers have a great investment in research. They should not be expected, however, to become skilled in designing research or even in executing it without competent assistance.

A major problem of putting research findings into practice is the need to communicate effectively with the consumers of research. The problems teachers face in the interpretation of research results are well described by Robinson (36). The teacher frequently finds no answer or conflicting answers to questions of vital importance. Such situations require an expert to interpret the research findings. Robinson (36) then describes the series of pamphlets published by the AERA, entitled *What Research Says to the Teach-*

er (15). These pamphlets are finding extremely wide use and are providing teachers an invaluable interpretation of research. It is unfortunate, however, that certain of the pamphlets are not expanded to weighty volumes.

Summary

This paper has briefly touched on five major needs of educational research. These needs are related to knowledge of present status, theory to unify research, design and analysis problems, stimulation of research, and putting findings into practice.

If this discussion leads to the suggestion that education faculties should devote a much larger proportion of their time and effort to research and research application, this story told by Dean Stiles of Wisconsin may temper the conclusion somewhat:

> Two farmers, working in a field, noticed a neighbor's barn was on fire. One farmer wanted to rush over to aid the neighbor. The other suggested, "Don't you think we'd better first ask him if he wants the fire out?"

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'Seven Musts for Better Schools'

► In "Seven Musts for Better Schools," written for *Parents' Magazine* by Lawrence G. Derthick with Louis I. Freed, are these recommendations:

1. We must give consideration to a longer school day and a longer school year.

2. We must make better use of our school plants to get more out of our investments in them.

3. More homework must be required.

4. Concerted community effort to obtain scholarship funds is a pressing necessity.

5. Parents in one-teacher school areas and in districts having small and inefficient high schools must work for consolidation.

6. The need for more aptitude testing and counseling services is painfully obvious.

7. Every citizen and every community must dig down deeper to find the money.

Significance of the I. Q.

By **J. SHERRICK FISHER**

THE term I.Q. has been used by psychologists and educators since the year 1916, when Lewis M. Terman of Stanford University called the ratio between a child's mental age and his actual or chronological age the "intelligence quotient." Today, I.Q. is commonly thought of by educators and psychologists as a measure of the rate of an individual's mental growth.

No one has ever denied that the ratio between mental age and actual age exists, but the fact that this relationship is more or less fixed for the duration of the individual's life is a point whose validity has been under almost constant attack. Much of the material upon which these attacks have been based has originated from misunderstandings, ill-devised experimental studies, and sheer hypocrisy. These attacks have, in turn, caused much misunderstanding and confusion in lay and professional circles.

An article entitled "How to Raise Your Child's I.Q."[1] is quite typical of the type of literature in question. In order to evaluate such material, one must keep in mind that I.Q. refers to the child's *rate* of mental growth. There is much evidence to support the hypothesis that, under normal conditions, there isn't much that can be done to increase this rate of development.

If it were possible to increase I.Q., as some writers suggest, then it might be possible to approach the ultimate in ideal learning conditions and have each and every child deal with the same complexity of material at the same rate of learning as every other child of the same age and grade in school. Our teachers would like this very much; but the very obvious fact that children learn at different and varying rates of speed still confronts teachers in every classroom of the nation, and will probably do so until the end of time.

Just a moment ago the point was made that under normal conditions there isn't much that can be done to increase the rate of mental growth in a child. The term "normal conditions," in this instance, means that there are no unusual environmental or biological circumstances under which the individual finds himself functioning. There have been instances where removal of abnormal glandular conditions has made it possible for individuals to function at an increased rate of mental efficiency. The same can be said for the removal of undesirable environmental conditions causing emotional disturbances which impede the child's rate of learning.

It is conceivable that we have too many improperly or poorly trained people trying to measure the intelligent quotient. As a result of such inept workers, children are often incorrectly labeled; their "true" I.Q.'s have not been established. Add to this the fact that many children do not perform as well as they should in a test situation and it is possible that a given child's I.Q. may be underestimated to a considerable degree. It is to be expected that these same children, when tested by more expert personnel, will raise their test scores. This does not mean, of course, that they have raised their I.Q.'s. What it does mean is that the truth has been more closely approximated in estimating their rate of mental growth.

The most reliable estimate of a child's rate of mental growth can be obtained only when the child is tested individually and by a competent tester. The point has already been made that some children do not respond well in test situations; this is especially true when children are tested in large or fairly large groups. Group tests have been known to underestimate a child's I.Q. by as much as fifteen to twenty points.

Another common error in the United States is in attaching too much conclusiveness to a test score. The golden rule of testing is that any test score is only a point of departure for further study of the individual. At best it is only an estimate of whatever power the child has that is being measured. The scores made by children on one examination need to be supplemented by scores made by the same children on additional examinations, and all such data needs to be studied in relation to the daily performance of the children in and out of the classroom.

In conjunction with what has just been said, it must be borne in mind, also, that no test is infallible. To be more specific, no intelligence test, especially no group test, functions perfectly under all conditions and at all times. Administering,

MR. FISHER *(Xi 742) is an associate professor of education, San Diego State College, California.*

[1] Fine, Benjamin, "How To Raise Your Child's I.Q.," *Coronet*, October, 1955.

scoring, and interpreting the test are procedures subject to variable factors found in the child being tested and the adult who is doing the testing. As a rule, of course, these factors produce the least variation from "truth" when the child is tested individually and by a competent tester.

When people write about how the I.Q. can be raised, they usually suggest specific improvements in environment. There is no doubt that a child's environment has an influence on his rate of learning; but, if this rate of learning is to be increased to any considerable degree, a very dramatic change of environment is necessary. On the average, such dramatic changes just don't take place.

If we were to take the average home environment for the United States, proceed as high up the home environmental scale as to include 34 per cent of all the American homes above the average, and then go down the scale to include 34 per cent of the homes below the average, 68 per cent in all, we might expect that within this range of environment the I.Q. can shift by as much as six to nine points as a result of improvement in environment.[2] The experimental evidence on this point hardly substantiates the claim of one writer that the I.Q. can be raised as much as seventy points (forty points on the average) by an improvement in environment.

It is interesting to ponder why some people prefer to write and speak in terms of raising the child's I.Q. Could it be that they realize that this is precisely what some parents want to hear? Various sociologists have described our present period in American life as the age of doting parents. Parents anxious to raise their children's I.Q.'s no doubt form a rather large and impressive audience. Whatever the reason, the writer who prefers to sell copy at the expense of truth will apparently always be with us.

Unfortunately, educators can cite case after case of parents who have been seriously misled by this type of literature. It is heartbreaking to witness their treks to clinic after clinic, always with the hope that there will be a clinician in some mental clinic who can help their handicapped children.

In the interest of truth and compassion, it is worthwhile to repeat that, under normal conditions, there isn't much that can be done to raise the child's I.Q. If the testing has been done by a competent clinician, and the child's day-to-day performance at mental tasks in and out of school substantiates the findings revealed by the test, the evidence is rather conclusive.

Regardless of the outcome of the test, the aim of parents and teachers should always be to provide children with an environment conducive to optimal development. Each and every child should have an opportunity to develop to the fullest of his potential. If the environment does not allow this to occur, then a change in environment is obviously in order.

Parents need to know more about the intelligence quotient as an expression of the rate of mental growth in children. Teachers need to give them information that is truthful and representative of the best research of our day. Information that falls short of being substantiated by valid research can only cause confusion and misunderstanding and make the task of both parents and teachers more difficult. Motivating parents to upgrade the home environment is fine. But care should be taken that false hopes are not engendered concerning an increase in the child's I.Q.

[2] From Burks, Barbara S., in *Nature and Nurture*, as quoted in Torgerson, T. L., and Adams, Georgia Sachs. *Measurement and Evaluation for the Elementary School Teacher*. New York: Dryden Press, 1954. p. 78.

► The sixth-year graduate program in teacher education is a relatively new development, but appears to be growing. Robert H. Koenker, director of graduate studies and professor of education at Ball State Teachers College, Muncie, Indiana, has prepared a lengthy study and directory of forty-seven of the forty-eight U. S. institutions that offer such programs. He has a limited number of copies available for free distribution.

Forty of the forty-seven institutions on which Koenker reports offered their sixth-year programs for the first time between 1950 and 1957. There is little uniformity in the titles of recognition given for completion. Most common: Certificate of Advanced Study, Specialist in Education, Professional Diploma, Advanced Professional Certificate.

► Unesco's second survey of education throughout the world, a 1,388-page volume covering more than 190 primary school systems, is now available after three years of preparation.

Titled *World Survey of Education—II: Primary Education*, the work offers 567 statistical tables, 159 diagrams of school administration and organization, and glossaries of terms in twenty-eight languages. Future volumes will cover secondary and higher education.

The survey has a twofold purpose: to give a world view of elementary education and to serve as a reference work on the schools of all the world.

The price is $26. The book may be obtained through Unesco Publications, Place de Fontenoy, Paris 7, France.

Who Will Teach in 1965?

By **BLAIR HURD**

DURING the six months prior to the opening of school each September, school districts conduct a gigantic recruitment and selection campaign designed to secure the services of qualified teachers. Armed with attractive charts and picture displays, personnel directors of medium and large school districts comb the country with a sometimes-not-too-fine-tooth comb, the fineness being determined by the attractiveness both of the school district's salary schedule and the geographic area.

For more than a decade there has been a critical shortage of qualified teachers in the United States—a shortage which, it was obvious, would grow more acute. Despite evidence which points conclusively to an increasing problem, relatively little has been done or is being done to organize a long-range attack on the problem.

Supply Figures Show No Gain

The most recent research available regarding national teacher supply and demand is the 11th annual study conducted by the National Education Association. This study predicted a shortage of 35,000 elementary and high school teachers for September, 1958. This figure was based on a "demand" for 120,000 teachers to replace those who would leave the profession and to serve the natural increase in enrollment and an estimated 85,000 teacher-graduates for 1958. The estimated shortage of 35,000 would be increased to 135,000, the report indicated, if consideration were given to relief from overcrowding, addition of necessary services, and replacement of approximately the least prepared one-fourth of the elementary teachers who were not college graduates.[1] Interviewed on February 3, Ray C. Maul of the N.E.A. stated that he believes, judging from preliminary data on which the 12th annual report will be based, that the supply-demand picture for 1959 will not be significantly different.

It is doubtful that much can be done in the very near future to more than maintain the status quo—and we will be very fortunate if that is done. For purposes of long-range planning, however, thoughtful consideration must be given to recruiting sufficient numbers of teachers to meet the needs brought about by long-term neglect and the increasing complexity of our modern society.

The fact that the quality of preparation available to persons preparing for all vocations and professions is dependent upon the quality of America's teachers virtually screams its message of urgency. The scream has been muffled, however, behind soundproof walls of complacency, short-sightedness, misaligned values, and destructively uninformed criticism.

The Profession Itself Can Be Effective

The teacher shortage is a national problem, but its roots have been cultivated in local communities. If a balance is to be achieved between the need for teachers and the available supply of teachers, each community in the United States must do its part in the total effort. The experiences of more than two and one-half years of full-time effort in coordinating, stimulating, and planning teacher recruitment activity in California have led to the conviction that the teaching profession, more than any other group, can contribute to the rapid achievement of a balance between supply and demand, possibly by 1965.

There are certain existing conditions on which this conviction is based. The most important of these are as follows:

1. Teaching has "come of age" as a profession and may be expected to continue to mature.
2. The American people are becoming more aware of the necessity of high-quality education and they want an increasingly better education for their children and youth.
3. This nation can afford to devote considerably more of its gross national product to education than it now does.
4. Members of the teaching profession are assuming greater individual responsibility as well as group responsibility for encouraging able young people to enter teaching.
5. Schools and education in general have become front-page news due to an ever-increasing concern on the part of the public for the quality of education.
6. Substantial annual increases in the number of college graduates can be expected, with ap-

MR. HURD *(Beta Omega 64) is coordinator of teacher recruitment with the Department of Education, State of California, Sacramento.*

[1] National Education Association, *Teacher Supply and Demand in Public Schools, 1958*, Research Division, The Association, 1201 16th Street, N. W., Washington, D. C., April, 1958, pp. 13-17.

proximately one-third of such graduates meeting certification requirements.

The mere presence of these conditions does not assure that there will be an adequate supply of competent teachers. Their presence does assure, however, that the goal is now more nearly possible of achievement than at any time since the 1930's.

A Long-Range Plan

The task of recruiting and retaining qualified teachers in the public schools of America is the responsibility of all citizens. It is obvious, however, that a major share of the leadership necessary to the fulfillment of this responsibility will have to be borne by the teaching profession. Equally obvious is the fact that each of us, as individuals, must provide a share of the leadership. There is a responsibility for all members of the profession to be found in each of the following areas of action:

TASK I. *The public school program should provide an opportunity for students to learn about the important role which public education plays in our society.* Students who understand the importance of education—and of the teacher—are more likely to consider teaching as a career. What is more important, however, is that these citizens of the future have sufficient information about the role of the public school to make wise decisions as school board members, advisory committee members, and voters.

TASK II. *The teaching profession should establish a code of ethics and enforce compliance with this code on the part of all its members.* It is doubtful if one teacher out of ten today would be able to give a reasonably complete description of the code of ethics under which he performs. It is likely, also, that the preparation programs for teachers give only perfunctory attention to ethics. The millenium will have been reached when national, state, and local teacher associations will admit to membership only those persons who are fully qualified and will enforce professional conduct on the part of their members. This failure of the teaching profession to make a clear distinction between the fully qualified and the unprepared person serving in the public schools must, indeed, cause the lay public some wonder.

There is, in fact, a tendency within the profession to divide against itself. Associations of special subject fields and academic levels have tended to become separate entities acting, in some cases, contrary to the best interests of the teaching profession as a whole. In many instances the "operational" code of ethics differs considerably for these groups from stated codes of the teaching profession as a whole.

Anticipated Outcomes: Increased prestige and status would be an inevitable result. The holding power of the profession would be increased, since the human relations aspects of teaching would be improved. Pride in the profession would tend to increase and this, perhaps more than any other factor, could be expected to attract more capable youth into the profession.

TASK III. *Capable secondary school youth should be provided with guided and planned experience of a teaching nature.* Research has provided substantial evidence that experience in working with children is a factor in influencing youth to consider teaching careers. Such experiences can be provided through organized work-experience education programs or other means. Leadership experience in Scout, church, recreation, and other non-school activities should be encouraged and promoted for youth. Clubs for future teachers should be supported actively and designed to provide identification with the profession as well as to give early pre-professional preparation.

Anticipated Outcomes: Selection for the profession will be improved, as students can be helped to make career decisions based on such experience. Fewer students who enroll in college teacher preparation programs will drop out because of a change in career plans. The pre-professional preparation period would be lengthened, thus providing for the application of continuous and increasingly rigorous screening of potential teacher candidates.

TASK IV. *The guidance and counseling function must give greater emphasis to vocational guidance.* The all-too-high number of qualified students who do not enter and complete college represents a serious loss to the total reservoir of trained manpower—a reservoir from which teachers must be recruited in competition with the demands of many other vocations. Every additional graduate added to this reservoir contributes to a decrease in the competition for teacher-graduates, approximately one-fourth of whom do not enter teaching the year after graduation.

Numerous studies have revealed that students, even those who plan to teach, have not been given adequate current information about the profession of teaching. Parents should be included in this counseling process.

Anticipated Outcomes: The total potential of our capable youth will be utilized, thus making more adequate the supply of trained manpower—not only for teaching but for other vocations as

well. Much of the criticism of the schools will have been met, thus diminishing the total effect of such attacks on the attractiveness of teaching.

TASK V. *The teaching profession must give more attention to improving its standards, attitudes, and level of competency as a means of increasing financial support.* One unqualified person who is employed, one teacher who "beats the students out the door" at the close of school, one administrator who publicly criticizes or fails to support a teacher, and one public gripe by a member of the profession speak much more loudly than statistics, after-dinner speakers, and the dedicated service given by a multitude of truly professional practitioners. It is likely that much of the lay interest in merit pay has resulted less from a desire to reward the superior teacher than from a determination to punish the least competent personnel with whom there has been dissatisfaction.

Anticipated Outcomes: The consumer who desires an apple most often will pay ten cents for a firm, red apple rather than spend five cents for a well-advertised specimen which he suspects may contain certain animal imperfections. If the ten cent apple exceeds his taste expectations, he will purchase the same variety again, even if the price has risen to fifteen cents. The challenge to each member of the profession is to *be* the kind of teacher and to *encourage* being the kind of teacher who will exceed the "consumer's" expectation.

TASK VI. *The teaching profession must extend the implementation of personnel procedures and practices which are professional in nature.* A recent three-year study in California revealed that nearly 70 per cent of the persons who quit teaching did so during their first five years of teaching. It is likely that studies of the leavers in other states would yield similar information. It is clear from the reasons for leaving given by these teachers that there is need for improving the quality of the experience and help which the beginning teacher receives. Experienced teachers may give their new colleagues an ostentatious welcome and yet reserve for them the least attractive assignments—large and "problem" classes, inadequate physical facilities, and undesirable non-teaching chores. The new teacher searching for a position may find himself bouncing from one employing official to another and finally hanging by his thumbs while decisions regarding his employment are made, like marriages, in heaven. He may find that the glad hand he received at the time of employment has become a mailed fist or, worse yet, a palsied support.

If, as has already been assumed, teaching is truly a profession, the members thereof must insure that every new teacher has a maximum opportunity to achieve success and personal satisfaction. Such insurance must begin, at least, with the time at which candidates are selected for teacher preparation and continue until professional maturity has been attained.

Anticipated Outcomes: Enthusiastic teachers will retain their enthusiasm, thus increasing the attractiveness of the profession for youth. Teacher retention will be improved and those who leave the profession, either temporarily or permanently, will still be enthusiastic school supporters.

TASK VII. *The teaching profession must provide the leadership in initiating and coordinating long-range teacher recruitment efforts in each community.* During the 1957 series of California teacher recruitment conferences which involved approximately 2,500 lay and professional leaders throughout the state, representatives of lay groups repeatedly stated that they were but waiting for instructions from the profession regarding the role they should perform in teacher recruitment.[2] It was evident that the lay participants were hungry for more information about the problem when they recommended an increased publicity program through the establishment of speakers' bureaus and by increased use of the mass communication media.

There was evidence also of the desire for a continuous, organized, coordinated attack on the problem in the recommendations for the establishment of community and county teacher recruitment committees—committees which would be constituted predominantly of lay people with leadership to be supplied by the teaching profession.

Anticipated Outcomes: Duplication and waste of effort would be eliminated. Groups and individuals best suited to perform specific functions will perform those functions.

Summary Statement

Experience has indicated that teacher recruitment is one of the few major educational problems on which there is common agreement by virtually all persons and groups. Closer cooperation in the solution of other educational problems may be possible on the basis of the cooperation achieved through teacher recruitment efforts.

For at least a decade the shortage of qualified teachers has been one of the most critical problems facing public education. Efforts thus far have been devoted to describing the problem and deciding what *might* be done to attract more youth to teaching. The natural inclination to seek an easy solution has led to the adoption of measures

[2] Hurd, Blair E., *Securing and Keeping Good Teachers in California Public Schools*, California State Department of Education bulletin, Vol. XXVII, No. 27, April, 1958.

based more on expediency than on carefully considered, long-range study and planning. Too-large classes coupled with shortages of classrooms has brought a cry for teacher-aides. The failure of the profession to provide for a high level of competency on the part of its members has contributed to a demand for merit pay—a demand often based on a false premise.

In general, teachers and administrators have not assumed leadership in the recruitment, selection, and retention of a supply of fully qualified practitioners. Present conditions are such that action by the teaching profession, both organizationally and individually, can contribute significantly to a high-standards solution to the shortage of teachers and the consequent further maturation of the profession as a whole.

It is obvious what needs to be done. No bonds hold the profession other than its own complacency. What is done now will determine who will teach in 1965—and may determine the quality of the profession for many years to come.

Keeping Abreast in Education

The School Construction Prospect

► Communities on their own can do little more than handle the tide of new students; the old classroom needs remain about the same. These are conclusions one can draw from figures released by the U. S. Office of Education on the nation's classroom shortage. We are short 140,500 classrooms this year, as against 142,300 last year at this time.

Last year 71,600 classrooms were built, but most of them were promptly filled by children enrolling in the schools for the first time. U. S. Office figures show that communities plan to build fewer classrooms this school year—68,440—than last. These, too, will do little more than take care of new students.

Department of Quotable Quotes

"We spend heavily for material things, but do we invest enough in the intellectual, moral, social, and physical development of the men and women of our society? Would not our country progress faster and more surely with a more foresighted attitude toward investment in health and education, in fundamental research, in improving the function of government, in bettering the relations among people, and in artistic and cultural developments?

—Marion B. Folsom, in "Government and the Citizen," Jan. 17 *Saturday Review*

* * *

"What is required, if we are falling behind in scientific inventiveness, is not a different kind of education but a better education of our own kind—the kind suitable to our society. And the last thing that will give us a better education of our own kind is an education oriented to satisfy the personnel requirements of a social machine, whether a business corporation or a nation with a capital N."

—Archibald MacLeish, in "What Is A True University," Jan. 31 *Saturday Review*

Spank with Deep Understanding

► The Schools Committee of the Grand Jury of Los Angeles County has made recommendations in nine major areas, including one called "The Unwilling Adolescent." A sub-section of this deals with corporal punishment as follows:

"Revive, with deep understanding and improved techniques, the institution of corporal punishment. Admitting the abuses of other days, there is in physical chastisement something of vital significance to children and young adolescents. Legal restrictions on school authorities should be relaxed, and parents certainly should learn and practice its effective application."

The Beta Psi Field Chapter of PDK newsletter explains, in quoting this recommendation, that the committee intends to promote increased early guidance and counseling. Another recommendation of the grand jury committee: "An adequate counseling and guidance program, from kindergarten through secondary school, is a prime necessity." The accent is upon discovery and treatment before the development of "fixed attitudes."

Children WANT Discipline

► "We must remember, all of us, that children need and WANT discipline. They want to know what the right thing is to do and, given half a chance, they'll do it. . . . Discipline, begun early and maintained, is a solution to hoodlumism. Surrendering the night is not one."

These are words from a letter to his colleagues by Herman L. Shibler, general superintendent, Indianapolis Public Schools, in which he refused to accede to requests for abandoning night football because of hoodlumism at the eighth annual Football Jamboree in Indianapolis last fall.

After High School, What and Why?

► Lack of financial means probably bars fewer than 10 per cent of the boys and 25 per cent of the girls among Wisconsin's top-ranking high-school graduates from going to college, according to a state scholarship committee created by the 1957 Wisconsin legislature. But the committee calls for (1) increasing the state's student loan fund from $200,000 to $1 million; (2) lengthening the repayment period from the present two years to a maximum of ten; (3) transferring administration of the fund from the Department of Public Welfare to a state educational agency such as the State Superintendent of Public Instruction.

About one out of six students attending Wisconsin colleges and universities holds a scholarship. About one out of five borrows money to help finance higher education, whether or not he holds a scholarship. And about one out of two works part-time.

A somewhat similar study, conducted in Indiana last year under the direction of Dean Wendell W. Wright and Dr. Christian Jung of the Indiana University School of Education, reveals that in this state lack of funds, early marriages, interest in a job, and lack of parental encouragement are prime factors preventing over 25 per cent of the top one-tenth of high school graduates from entering college. Wright and Jung see a need for much more effective guidance and counseling as well as for financial help.

New Books on Educational Research

► Among newly published books received at Phi Delta Kappa headquarters in recent weeks are three in the area of research:

Research in Education, by John W. Best, professor of education at Butler University, Indianapolis, published by Prentice-Hall. Price $5.75. Written primarily for the graduate student but useful to educational workers interested in professional problem-solving or research in the field.

An Introduction to Research in Education, by Henry Lester Smith and Johnnie Rutland Smith. (H. L. Smith was formerly dean of the School of Education and director of the Bureau of Cooperative Research, Indiana University.) Published by Educational Publications, Bloomington, Indiana. Price $4.75. Intended as a guide for writing theses for higher degrees and as a stimulus for continuing research.

The Action Research Way of Learning, by Abraham Shumsky, assistant professor of education, Brooklyn College, published by the Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University. Price $3.75. A description of "problems and frustrations and of thought and insight which led to an improved way of learning and teaching."

► The New York State foundation level (expenditure per pupil which the state will help finance) is $356.40. Regents this year have proposed a separate foundation program of $36 for capital outlays.

The Dollar Floor on Quality

► The N.E.A.'s Educational Policies Commission released its latest statement, a booklet titled *An Essay on Quality in American Education*, in late January. Quotes:

"With fewer than fifty professionals available per thousand pupils, some of the elements of a high quality program are likely to be slighted. These professionals—guidance counselors, librarians, coordinators, administrators, etc.—may be distributed in many ways, depending on class size. In some cases as many as forty might be classroom teachers."

"An adequate starting salary is one which is reasonably competitive with those of other professional occupations and other teaching positions open to candidates. This can be determined locally. The rate of salary advancement should compare favorably with similar stages in other occupations and should assure a career teacher at least double his starting salary within ten years, with increments beyond that period."

"Though cost of goods and services vary from place to place, there is a dollar floor below which high quality cannot be obtained. Calculations needed to establish such a floor depend on relating current expenses to staff salaries and staff size. In a school district of adequate size the minimal annual per pupil current expenditure should be about 12 per cent of the salary necessary to employ a qualified beginning teacher in that district."

Bibliography of Teacher Education Criticism

► An annotated bibliography of teacher education criticisms is now being distributed by the Department of Education and Psychology, Kansas State Teachers College, Pittsburg, at 25¢ per copy.

The bibliography was compiled by W. James Popham and Suzanne W. Greenberg and served as the basis for their article in the December, 1958, PHI DELTA KAPPAN, "Teacher Education: A Decade of Criticism." The bibliography lists material published between January 1, 1948, and July 1, 1958.

Requests for the multilithed bibliography should be directed to the College Book Store, Kansas State Teachers College, Pittsburg.

► A new publication which might well be copied in every state has appeared as a joint project of the Illinois Council on Educational Administration and the Illinois Superintendent of Public Instruction. Titled *A Directory of College Scholarships Available to Illinois High School Graduates, A Guide for One Road to College*, it should prove of great value to high schools seeking to improve their guidance and counseling services.

► Headline of the month: "Growing Support for Federal Financial Aid." (But it comes from *Education*, journal of the N.S.W. Teachers' Federation, Sydney, Australia, where "the whole nation has become aware of the inadequacy of Australian schools.")

S-R BONDS

Dear Editor:

"S-R Bonds" for December echoes my sentiments . . . [keep on] publishing good, down-to-earth articles! Educational jargon runs amuck in countless journals; not so in the KAPPAN. Unfortunately, much time is lost in routing my copy to other members of the faculty. Has any thought been given to making available reprint service?—DOUGLAS A. LEHMAN (Xi 823), *principal,* The Aliquippa Public Schools, Aliquippa, Pa.

(Editor's Note: Reprints of all articles are available from PDK headquarters. Quantity orders for one or two page articles start at $5 per hundred. Additional hundreds cost $1. We can now supply single reprints for from 25¢ to 50¢.)

Dear Editor:

The play, "Mad. Avenue Aids the School Crisis," by William C. Miller, strikes me as being ideal for use in our annual Teachers' Scholarship Variety Show. I should appreciate your permission to make use of the play for this non-profit and worthy cause. —ROBERT T. MCGEE (Upsilon 1208), *principal,* Mesa Elementary School, Las Alamos, N. M.

(Editor's Note: Glad to oblige. Others are doing the same thing. You'd think his name was Henry Miller.)

Dear Editor:

May I join the "Congratulations on Your November-December Issues Club"? Fortunately, the January issue slowed the controversial pace a bit and may have saved circulation for *SatEvePost* and *Time*. Our high-school faculty has been hustling to find and read copies of the KAPPAN. We must be careful not to jar their equilibrium. . . .

A touch of sympathy for Harold L. Clapp. I am not certain that I would care to write into the lion's den. Rebuttal is fine—but not when used as a followup club to smash a person's views to smithereens. Admiral Rickover, though controversial, might well be given a shot at Brickman's assassination effort. When a person's views are sincere, logical, reasonably informed, and even partly wrong, he might well have something to say to even a Comparative Educator who has an open mind.

The Bemis article represents the clearest practical development in answer to the merit quandary I have seen. . . . —JOHN F. MCGREW (Gamma Rho 24), *boys' vice principal,* Western High School, Anaheim, Calif.

(Editor's Note: Neither Clapp nor Rickover were denied chance for rebuttal.)

Dear Editor:

I could hardly credit my eyes as I read the editorial of the January, 1959, PHI DELTA KAPPAN. The final paragraph simply appalled me.

I feel obliged to inform you that I am one Phi Delta Kappan (of a great many, I believe) that is not willing to sacrifice the "upward surge of an underprivileged minority," using the maintenance of free public education as an excuse.

I have read the PHI DELTA KAPPAN with interest and pride over the past two years, but, at this time, I am rather ashamed of the publication.—JAMES J. CONBOY (Gamma Epsilon 261), 1221½ Roslyn Lane, La Jolla, Calif.

(Editor's Note: And the editor was simply appalled to learn that his intent could be so monstrously misconstrued. We assumed—perhaps gratuitously—that our readers would know: 1) that it is whites in the South, not we, who have put the issue in its present terms; and 2) that we would not prefer segregated schools to no public schools. Like all good Phi Delta Kappans, we work for equal educational opportunity for every boy and girl, regardless of race or creed. But we think there is still a chance, if men of good will can organize, to preserve the South's system of public schools while continuing to make progress toward desegregation. Recent developments in Virginia encourage us in this belief.

We suggested that the South may be willing to accept alternatives short of closing the public schools if educational leaders there—Phi Delta Kappans, of course—will form effective groups to work for such acceptance. One of these alternatives is the Pearsall Plan, which establishes the principle of desegregation while apparently satisfying all but the most fanatic segregationists. We believe that complete desegregation would inevitably and eventually follow, because the Negro is making rapid social and economic advances.

We're all for "the upward surge of underprivileged minorities," including that of men teachers. But we'd like to preserve other good things—women teachers, for example—at the same time. We even think it is possible.)

Dear Editor:

. . . The outstanding articles, I think, were "The Cult of the Slob," by Max Rafferty, and the Rickover and Brickman articles. The first of these should be circulated by the millions for its beauty of literary style as well as its plain horse sense. As for the other two, Brickman made better reading than Rickover, but he did not exactly demolish the admiral. True, Rickover has not had time to conduct educational research, but obviously he personally witnesses, in his own specialty, some shortcomings in American education. He has a right to sound off, just as I have a right to complain if I don't like the taste of my city's drinking water, even though I don't happen to be a chemist specializing in water treatment.—IRVING KATZ (Tau 550), South Philadelphia High School.

*The School Administrator's Dilemma**

If he's friendly with the clerical staff, he's a politician.
If he keeps to himself, he's a snob.

If he makes decisions quickly, he's arbitrary.
If he doesn't have an immediate answer, he can't make up his mind.

If he works on a day-to-day basis, he lacks foresight.
If he has long-range plans, he's a daydreamer.

If his name appears in the newspapers, he's a publicity hound.
If no one has ever heard of him, he's a nonentity.

If he requests a large budget, he is against economy.
If he doesn't ask for more money, he's a timid soul (or stark mad).

If he tries to eliminate red tape, he has no regard for the system.
If he insists on going through channels, he's a bureaucrat.

If he speaks the language of education, he's a cliché expert.
If he doesn't use the jargon, he's illiterate.

If he's late for work in the morning, he's taking advantage of his position.
If he gets to the office on time, he's an eager beaver.

If the office is running smoothly, he is a dictator.
If the office is a mess, he's a poor administrator.

If he holds weekly staff meetings, he's in desperate need of ideas.
If he doesn't hold staff meetings, he doesn't appreciate the value of teamwork.

If he spends a lot of time with the board, he's a back-slapper.
If he's never with the board, he's on his way out.

If he goes to conventions, he's on the gravy train.
If he never makes a trip, he's not important.

If he tries to do all the work himself, he doesn't trust anybody.
If he delegates as much as possible, he's lazy.

If he tries to get additional personnel, he's an empire builder.
If he doesn't want more assistants, he's a slave driver.

If he takes his briefcase home, he's trying to impress the board.
If he leaves the office without any homework, he has a sinecure.

If he enjoys reading this description, he's facetious.
If he doesn't think it's clever, well, he's entitled to his own opinion.

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* Adapted and revised by Wallace B. Appelson, assistant professor of education, Rutgers University. (From Robert S. Herman's original prose appearing in *Public Administration Review*, Autumn, 1955, entitled "The Administrator's Dilemma.")